

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

## CONTENTS FOR MAY, 1918

<b>General Ferdinand Foch.....</b>	<i>Frontispiece</i>	<b>From College Dean to War Executive—</b>	
<b>The Progress of the World—</b>		<b>I. Frederick P. Keppel of Columbia</b>	497
Mars Triumphant.....	451	BY LEVERING TYSON	
The New Vision of Empire.....	451	<b>II. Dean Keppel in the War Department</b>	498
The President's Appeal to Force.....	452	BY DONALD WILHELM	
Describing the Great Battle.....	452	<b>Making Democracy Efficient.....</b>	500
America in the Breach.....	453	BY FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND	
Our Growing Forces Abroad.....	453	<b>Massachusetts in Action.....</b>	503
The Policy Must Succeed.....	454	BY HON. SAMUEL W. MCCALL	
Backing Up "The Boys".....	455	<b>Boston in War Paint.....</b>	505
The Question of Officers.....	455	BY GEORGE F. HINES	
Civil Leadership.....	455	<b>New England Once Again on the Sea.....</b>	510
Mr. Schwab, Who Succeeds.....	456	BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN	
Business Efficiency Gaining.....	456	<b>New England's War Spirit.....</b>	515
The Aircraft Issue.....	457	BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS	
The Navy As a Training School.....	457	<b>Yale's War Services.....</b>	518
Likewise, the Army.....	457	BY PRESIDENT ARTHUR T. HADLEY	
Dean Keppel in the War Department.....	458	<b>Connecticut in the Van.....</b>	520
The Medical Corps.....	458	BY HON. MARCUS H. HOLCOMB	
Medical Rank and Authority.....	459	<b>The Coal Situation.....</b>	522
Educating for a Solid Nation.....	459	BY COLIN DYMENT	
Our Patriotic Indians.....	459	<b>The "First Americans" as Loyal Americans.....</b>	523
Porto Rico Loyal and Contented.....	459	BY HON. CATO SELLS	
As to the Overman Bill.....	460	<b>American Indian Poetry.....</b>	524
"Making Democracy Efficient".....	460	<b>Porto Rico's Place in the Americas.....</b>	525
Settling the Irish Question.....	460	BY EMILIO J. PASARELL	
Home Rule Follows Conscription.....	460	<b>The College Woman as Nurse.....</b>	527
British Endurance.....	461	BY THOMAS H. SIMPSON	
Unifying the Home Control.....	462	<b>Leading Articles of the Month—</b>	
Reserves Beginning to Count.....	462	American Magazines after a Year of War.....	529
Italians Also in France.....	462	The English Reviews.....	530
Ireland and America.....	462	American Destroyers on Duty.....	531
Quiescence in the East.....	463	Japan's Military Coöperation.....	532
Finland's Ambitions.....	463	Germany and the Polish Question.....	534
Plight of the Neutrals.....	464	A New Industrial Italy.....	535
America and Japan.....	464	Limiting War-Time Executive Powers.....	536
American Propaganda.....	465	The National Anthem.....	537
A Useful Bureau.....	465	The Spanish Merchant Fleet.....	538
Labor and the Patriotic Spirit.....	465	What Is a Tornado?.....	539
The War Finance Corporation.....	467	Guatemala's Earthquake Disaster.....	540
Wage Increases in Oil and Steel.....	468	Standard Time at Sea.....	541
Tax Totals an Agreeable Surprise.....	468	China's Salt Tax.....	542
The Third Liberty Loan Afloat.....	468	The African Okapi, Unknown to the Zoos.....	544
<b>Record of Current Events.....</b>	469	The Latest Great Canal Project.....	545
<b>Cartoons on World Topics.....</b>	473	The Economics of the Palate.....	546
<b>Foch—Allied Commander-in-Chief.....</b>	477	The War and Advance in Surgery.....	548
BY MAURICE LÉON		<b>The New Books.....</b>	549
<b>The Greatest Battle in the World.....</b>	480	<b>The Third Liberty Loan.....</b>	558
BY FRANK H. SIMONDS		<b>Investors' Queries and Answers.....</b>	560
<b>Can German Air Craft Bomb New York?.....</b>	492		
BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFERT AND CARL DIENSTBACH			

**TERMS:**—Issued monthly, 25 cents a number, \$3.00 a year in advance in the United States, Porto Rico, Hawaii, Cuba, Canada, Mexico, and the Philippines. Elsewhere \$4.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second class matter under Act of Congress, March 3, 1879. Entered as second class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions. (Subscriptions to the English REVIEW OF REVIEWS, which is edited and published in London, may be sent to this office, and orders for single copies can also be filled, at the price of \$2.50 for the yearly subscription, including postage, or 25 cents for single copies.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 30 Irving Place, New York

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



**GENERAL FERDINAND FOCH, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE ALLIED ARMIES IN FRANCE**

(In articles appearing in this number of the REVIEW, Mr. Léon and Mr. Simonds show the undisputed fitness of General Foch for the supreme command. He was born in the Pyrenees near the Spanish border, and is of Basque blood. He was trained in his youth as an artilleryman, and saw war in the siege of Paris in 1871. He was then in his twentieth year, having been born October 2, 1851. He is an author of famous books in military science, and for many years past has been regarded as the foremost authority among European strategists. He has great qualities of character and spirit, in addition to his proved fitness for the practical conduct of war. He has the confidence of the Allied armies as well as the Allied governments)



# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LVII

NEW YORK, MAY 1918

No. 5

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*The Sword  
Alone Can  
Now Decide*

In the opening weeks of the year, the world was beginning to talk about the possibility of making peace before the staying hand of winter should be lifted and another terrible campaign should begin. When Colonel House returned from his mission as our Envoy Extraordinary at the Versailles conference, there was somehow set adrift a rumor that he had brought home with him the assurance of peace within a month or two. But history has taken a wholly different course. It was on February 11 that President Wilson made his address before Congress in joint session, analyzing German and Austrian peace utterances. Mr. Wilson and Mr. Lloyd George had early in January made notable addresses on the objects of the war, and the German Chancellor and Count Czernin, Austria's chief Minister, had made replies on the 24th. In the address of February 11, Mr. Wilson answered Count von Hertling and refuted his positions. Count Czernin's attitude, on the other hand, was treated as relatively reasonable and hopeful. Our readers will remember that Mr. Wilson ended his address with a statement of four essential principles, and proceeded:

A general peace erected upon such foundations can be discussed. Until such a peace can be secured, we have no choice but to go on. So far as we can judge, these principles that we regard as fundamental are already everywhere accepted as imperative, except among the spokesmen of the military and annexationist party in Germany. If they have anywhere else been rejected, the objectors have not been sufficiently numerous or influential to make their voices audible. *The tragic circumstance is that this one party in Germany is apparently willing and able to send millions of men to their death to prevent what all the world now sees to be just.*

Recent disclosures have shown how anxious the Emperor of Austria was to make

peace, and the responsibility for the appalling slaughter of the present campaign is definitely fixed. The German military party has prolonged the struggle, and must be destroyed. Otherwise there can be no peace.

*Germany's  
New Vision  
of Empire*

Unfortunately, it has proved impossible for any large element in Germany to adhere to a set of principles as being just in themselves. When the Reichstag majority last July made its famous declaration for peace without annexations or indemnities, it looked to the rest of the world like the beginning of sanity. There seemed some possibility that there might arise in Germany a public opinion that would express itself in political action, in strikes, in refusal to vote war credits, and



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AMERICA'S ANSWER TO HIS CHALLENGE  
From the Tribune (Chicago)

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451



THE FIRST ANNIVERSARY OF RUSSIAN FREEDOM  
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

in a triumph of the people over the militarists. But it now appears that when a Reichstag majority denounces annexations, it means merely that counsels of prudence and fear are prevailing, and does *not* mean that there has begun to assert itself a respect for other people's rights as a factor in the situation. Success seems to outweigh all scruples. When it was found that peace could be had with Russia which made possible a series of virtual annexations, or protectorates, including Finland, Livonia and Esthonia, Courland, Poland, Ukraine, Rumania—in short, a vast buffer region sweeping from the Baltic to the Black Sea and the Caspian—the Reichstag majority promptly broke to pieces. Centrists and Social Democrats alike were carried away by the iridescent dream of a Germany in control of vast new territories to be exploited, with endless natural resources in soil and minerals, and great fields of petroleum.

*The President  
Appeals to  
Force*

April 6 was the anniversary of the entrance of the United States as a belligerent. President Wilson marked the occasion by an address which he delivered at Baltimore. This date had been fixed for the launching of a popular "drive" for obtaining sub-

scriptions to the third great war loan. Mr. Wilson's speech was as admirably poised and phrased as any of its predecessors in the memorable series that will live through the centuries as among the greatest of American state papers. He showed that the military leaders had become the masters and rulers of Germany, and that they were seeking "not justice but dominion and the unhindered execution of their own will." From their conduct in the East, Mr. Wilson justly infers that they would do the same thing with Belgium and France in the West. "If, when they have felt their check to be final, they should propose favorable and equitable terms with regard to Belgium, France and Italy, could they blame us if we concluded that they did so only to assure themselves of a free hand in Russia and the East?" Mr. Wilson in this Baltimore speech then proceeds to paint a picture of the new empire that Germany is proposing to erect out of the conquest and domination of vast regions, which would ultimately include Persia and India. He does not think that a military empire of such sweep and power could exist in the world without menace to all free peoples. He sees nothing to do, therefore, but to oppose Germany with the utmost possible mobilization of our resources for war-making. This address was read by millions of Americans and accepted as the necessary expression of the nation's will in view of all the facts. At no time had the country been so firmly united in support of the war as at the moment last month when President Wilson's address was made.

*Describing  
The Great  
Battle*

In our opening remarks last month, we made note of the great German offensive which had begun on March 21, but which we could not, of course, describe in an April number that was at that moment closing for the press. We promised, however, that Mr. Simonds, who in that issue was presenting the current views regarding the prospects of a German offensive, would in this number describe what promised to be the greatest battle in all human history. The narrative, as he presents it in thrilling pages, brings us through a month of the colossal struggle, but breaks off at the 21st of April with the episode unfinished, and both sides making superhuman efforts. Doubtless, further great battles will have been fought in the days between the closing of our forms at the printers' on the 20th of April and our publication date of May 1.

But the story of what happened in the month following March 21 can never be forgotten.

*America  
in the  
Breach*

So far as America is concerned, there seemed only one course to take; and President Wilson was fully sustained by all branches of the Government and the official services, and by the press and public sentiment, in throwing our available men and resources into the immediate support of the Allied cause. It had not been the opinion of our best army authorities that Germany would really make the threatened Western offensive. It had been believed that Hindenburg would prefer to hold the Western line defensively with limited thrusts here and there to puzzle the Allied leaders, while consolidating Russian gains, and recuperating for 1919. Furthermore, the assurances given to this country of marked Allied predominance in men, guns and aircraft on the Western front had seemed to justify the endeavor to concentrate largely on the shipbuilding and supply programs at Washington, in order to attain a maximum preparation for meeting the enemy in strength early next year.

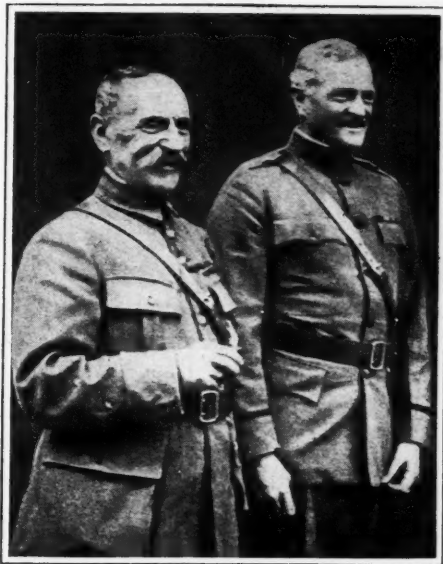
*Our Growing  
Forces  
Abroad*

When the terrible reverses, however, of late March began to overtake the English army, there was reason enough for a revision of plans. Under the stimulus of American opinion,



"THE YANKS ARE COMING!"

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle, Wash.)



Underwood & Underwood

GENERAL FOCH AND GENERAL PERSHING  
(A recent snapshot in France)

the British military leaders yielded to the judgment of Mr. Lloyd George and consented to accept a unified command of the Allied armies in France. Secretary Baker was on the ground with General Pershing, and President Wilson's views were of the most positive kind. The American forces in France were tendered fully and without reserve to General Foch as Commander-in-Chief. As modern armies go, our forces were not very large; but considering the problems of time and distance, the numbers of American soldiers already on French soil were great enough to constitute a substantial accession of reserves. Furthermore, the shipping situation had improved so much that it was possible to speed up the movement of troops from our great camps and cantonments where training had been going on since last fall. It is not desirable to print figures, but it is at least permissible to recall what Secretary Baker said several months ago to the Senate Military Committee regarding the prospect of troop movements; and it is surely permissible to say that the million troops for which Allied statesmen have openly appealed to the United States will have crossed the ocean sooner than there had been reason to expect. Each month will now appreciably swell the American contingent of Foch's reserve army.



LISTEN, BUT DON'T STOP AND LOOK  
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.)

The Policy Must Succeed

To this policy the nation is definitely committed. The one thing necessary now for every man, woman and child in America to do is to back up that policy and make it successful. To support our boys abroad we must have ships and food, munitions and clothing, artillery, aircraft and motor trucks, with many other kinds of supplies in quantities so vast that the mere statement of them would have seemed incredible a year ago. Adequate support in these ways must require a concentration of diligent effort devoted to essential things such as Americans have never known before, not even in the darkest hours of the Civil War. Vast sums of money have to be raised, and the Government is steadily improving the organization which spends the money and secures results. The private individual is obeying the call of duty when he saves his money and invests it in the Liberty Loan or the War Savings Stamps. He is rendering a real service when he follows the rules laid down—even though the rules are not all of them applicable to the whole population—regarding the use of food. It is necessary to understand that armies are helpless unless they are supported from the rear. The Russian armies failed at the outset because, when their ammunition was spent, those who should have kept them supplied had utterly

failed. Behind the German armies are such systematic efforts to create military supplies as subject the entire nation to rigid discipline. There must be no sort of idling in America; and if there can be no universal conscription of man-power for necessary work, the States themselves should follow the example of several that have taken the lead, and let no individual, young or old, rich or poor, evade the giving of his time and strength to useful service for the common cause.

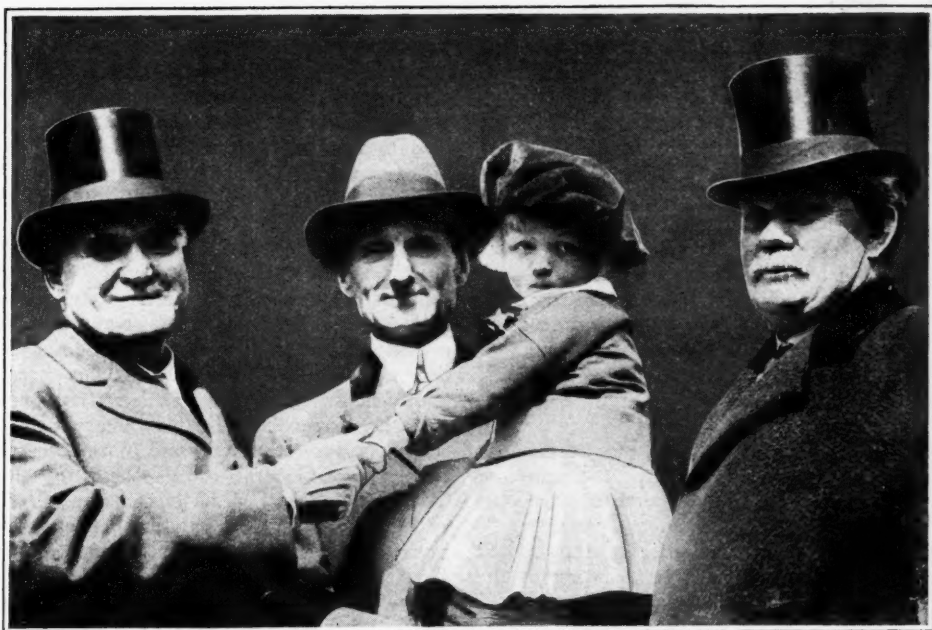
The Lines  
Are Now  
Drawn

In the famous phrase of Grover Cleveland, it is a condition, not a theory, that confronts us. There was value at one time in trying to clarify the objects of the war. There was good reason in the American view that it was a mistake to give the German militarists ground for asserting that the Allies were really fighting for territorial conquests. But these things, however fitly they could be discussed at one time, cannot engage the public mind just now. The Germans have decided to stake everything upon a military issue, and there is no choice for the Allies except to meet their enemies on that ground. If America were fighting Germany alone, she could prepare herself deliberately, have something to say about the time and the place of conflict, and hold her own with confidence. In the long run, the United States could protect the Western Hemisphere against Germany. We could never invade German territory, neither could the Germans ever successfully invade the United States. We could create naval strength and build aircraft, so that in the long run we could meet Germany successfully on the water.

Confidence  
in the  
Cause Itself

But it happens that we have a much larger task than would be ours if we were fighting Germany alone. It falls to our lot to cross an ocean and take part in land warfare. In the near future, we shall have made the record of sending by far the largest military expedition that has ever in the history of the world traversed wide seas. It would be more than useless at this moment to question the wisdom of this general policy, for the one reason, if for no other, that the decisions have been made beyond recall, and are in that sense as much a part of history as the decisions of President Lincoln that determined our course in the Civil War. There is a magnificent confidence in the justice of our cause that exhibits Ameri-





SECRETARY McADOO BEGINNING THE NEW WAR LOAN DRIVE AT PHILADELPHIA

(On April 6, the anniversary of America's entry in the war, the country began to subscribe for the third Liberty Loan. Secretary of the Treasury McAdoo spoke to an immense throng in front of the City Hall, Philadelphia, where a temporary Statue of Liberty had been erected. On the left in the picture is Governor Brumbaugh, of Pennsylvania, and on the right Governor Townsend, of Delaware. With Mr. McAdoo is his little granddaughter, Miss Nona Martin)

can idealism at its best. If the wise and the prudent have had their doubts as to these larger decisions, the tendency has been to dissolve doubt in hope and pride when the courage, manliness and modesty of two million boys in the American Army and Navy have shown us the superb quality of the new generation. The country will support them fully.

*Backing Up "The Boys"*  
It would seem that such young men must be invincible if given proper leadership and adequate materials. We shall build the ships and make the guns and aircraft, even though the program has been disappointingly delayed. The question of military leadership is more difficult than any other. The profession of arms has been the foremost occupation in Germany for generations, and never so cultivated as during the past half century. In England and the United States other callings have claimed most of the talent, and good Army officers have been trained in very small numbers. Thus there are in the British Empire probably twenty times as many officers now as four years ago; while in the United States the number should perhaps be multiplied by forty. This situation is advantageous to the Germans.

*The Question of Officers*

Among the Allies, the French are the nation who have long had to maintain the largest military force, and have accordingly entered the present war with the greatest number of professionally trained officers. Our own army leaders, therefore, have shown loyalty and patriotism in accepting facts as they are. They have been willing to have the American forces in France broken into small units and "brigaded" with the French and British armies, particularly with the French, where our own regimental and company officers will learn much in the school of experience while associated with the trained officers of the French army. This will result doubtless in the saving of the lives of numbers of our brave soldiers. Furthermore, we shall have many excellent officers better able to train officers and troops here at home, by reason of this willingness to merge our forces in those of our more experienced allies.

*Civil Leadership*

When we have given freely of our young men, there is nothing else that we could be tempted to withhold. To match with their fighting spirit, we must give freely of our money and our labor. War taxes and war loans will



suffice to pay all the bills that energetic leadership at Washington may contract, and will furnish credit as needed to the Allied governments. The best business talent in the country will be at the command of the President. An example of this was given last month when Mr. Charles M. Schwab became Director-General of the shipbuilding program. Everything depends upon our building ships. The fact that the Government has been able to expand the transport service for troop movement only increases the need of new ships, because so much additional tonnage will be required to send supplies to our ever-increasing forces abroad; while the bread to feed millions of civilian mouths in Allied and friendly neutral countries must also continue to go from the United States. Mr. Edward A. Filene, the public-spirited Boston merchant who is Chairman of the Shipping Committee of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, in a recent address made use of the following maxims about shipbuilding:

If there is one chance in one hundred that we shall be short of ships in the next six months then—

All our country's resources in men;  
All our country's resources in material;  
All of our country's resources in aiding—

Must go first of all to helping to turn out more ships in the next six months.

Because ships are the bridge over which every soldier we train, every gun we make, every bit of food we save, every supply needed to win the war must go before they can be used.

If the bridge is broken, if there are so few ships that there are gaps in the bridge, then we cannot win.

What we have undertaken to do in the building of ships has been more than once recited in these pages. New shipyards line our coasts and hundreds of vessels are going to be built. Speed in their completion, however, becomes vital.

Mr. Schwab,  
Who  
Succeeds

Mr. Charles M. Schwab is the best man in the United States to direct this work and obtain results. His name carries the promise of success. He tackles the job not to supersede those who were working at it, but because they themselves sought his leadership, and are remaining as his associates and helpers. Mr. Schwab is perhaps the most widely recognized industrial leader of his generation. Mr. Carnegie many years ago said that Mr. Schwab was the best expert steel maker in the country. He has built at Bethlehem a munition plant greater than that of the

Krupps at Essen. Associated with the Bethlehem plant are large shipbuilding yards, not only on the Atlantic coast, but at San Francisco. Mr. Schwab's personality is magnetic; his enthusiasm surmounts obstacles; men are glad to work with him and for him. He will know how to help the shipbuilders, in more than 130 yards, to get results. Within a week his influence began to be felt.

Business  
Efficiency  
Gaining

Mr. Stettinius, about whom a personal character sketch was published in this REVIEW two months ago, has been made an Assistant Secretary of War, because of his great ability in the business of obtaining war supplies, as demonstrated in his career as master buyer for the Allies, and more recently as Surveyor-General of Purchases in the War Department. The efficiency of General Goethals in the handling of supplies from the standpoint of the Quartermaster General's bureau is everywhere recognized. Admiral McGowan's foresight and ability, in his work as a business manager on the side of supplies for the Navy, has been a source of great satisfaction to Secretary Daniels, and of pride to the whole naval establishment. The new tendency towards efficiency in the business aspects of our war program has been so gratifying that it is gladly admitted by many of those who joined from a sense of public duty in the criticisms that were current several months ago.



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HON. EDWARD N. HURLEY, CHAIRMAN OF SHIPPING BOARD, AND HON. CHARLES M. SCHWAB, NEW DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF SHIPBUILDING

*The  
Aircraft  
Issue*

Apart from the delays in ship-building, those in the completion of aircraft in considerable numbers have provoked the most sweeping criticism. Perhaps the greatest mistake in the aircraft situation was the undue optimism that had been created by promises that could not be fulfilled. The moment that success on a large scale is obtained, as it certainly will be, the simple truth will accord much credit to men who are now blamed for failure. But for their great conceptions and bold initiative, the aviation program would not have come up at the time it was presented to Congress and unanimously accepted. Immense undertakings have been carried a long way. The criticism begins to be harshest at the very time when the outlook for results becomes most promising and the difficulties are being overcome. The training of aviators in this country will go forward on an increasing scale, and we shall doubtless do more than heretofore to aid in the production of battle-planes in enlarged French and British factories. Later on, we shall have many of the bombing planes to send abroad as ship space becomes available.

*The Navy  
As a Training  
School*

While it would be a great mistake to regard the submarine menace as even partially overcome, it is gratifying to know that the weekly losses of Allied ships have been showing a marked falling off. The efficiency of the American and British navies in dealing with the submarines is steadily increasing, and there are reasonable grounds for the belief that during the coming six months the situation at sea will show decided gains for the Allies, both in available tonnage and in defensive methods against German mines and torpedoes. The morale of the American Navy is deserving of great admiration. The idea of making the Navy educational—a school in discipline, character, handicrafts and general fitness—has been a favorite one with Secretary Daniels ever since he entered the Cabinet five years ago, as his annual reports bear ample witness. It has been something more than a theory, and the Navy is functioning as a great practical training system for its numerous recruits.

*Likewise,  
the  
Army*

There has been a similar spirit in the efforts of the War Department to make Army service and training a period of positive benefit to young men, rather than one of moral harm or phy-



(C) Harris & Ewing, Washington D. C.

MR. CHARLES M. SCHWAB, NOW DIRECTOR-GENERAL  
OF THE NATIONAL SHIPBUILDING WORK

sical deterioration. Every reasonable agency that could be devised that would entertain, instruct and benefit the boys in camps and cantonments, both here and abroad, has had the heartiest encouragement of the President, Secretary Baker and all the military authorities. Not only have Red Cross activities been welcome, but such agencies as the Y. M. C. A. and the Knights of Columbus have been officially sustained. A wide range of efforts on behalf of the welfare of soldiers has been under the supervision of an official commission headed by Mr. Raymond Fossdick. The military authorities have shown an unprecedented vigor in using their emergency powers to protect soldiers from vicious and immoral surroundings. While banishing saloons and like resorts, they have done their best to create opportunities for wholesome amusement and recreation. It would be simply impossible to exaggerate the value of all this work when set in its proper relation to military training and discipline. The fighting ability of a regiment is greatly enhanced by its good spirits, physical health, and freedom from drunkenness and immorality. Music, books, athletic sports, indoor diversions—all are duly recognized by the War Department. In so far as emergency conditions permit, the Army is to be a training place for the sound and manly development of young Americans.

Dean Keppel  
in the War  
Department

While there will be many other things for a third Assistant Secretary of War to do besides act as "dean" in supervision of all these welfare agencies, it is cheering news to be assured that these things are to be given the highest official sanction by coming under the direction of one of the ministerial chiefs of the War Department. Mr. Frederick Paul Keppel, during the past year, has been serving as a confidential assistant to Secretary Baker with high approval. For a number of years he has been Dean of the undergraduates in Columbia University, New York. We are publishing in this number a page which tells of his valued work among college students, and another page on his tactful services at Washington. Hundreds of thousands of American boys now in the Army have within a very recent time been pupils in our public schools or higher institutions. That their welfare in the Army is to have a champion in a high official who has himself known thousands of American students and had their good will, must bring comfort and assurance to parents. Mr. Keppel was last month appointed by the President as an Assistant Secretary of War, and confirmed by the Senate—a well-earned recognition.

The  
Medical  
Corps

There is one branch of the Army service for which selected men taken from civil life are already prepared. Our great surgeons and our distinguished medical and health authorities on entering the Army find themselves working in their own professional sphere. They can at once apply their experience in the health administration of cities and in the carrying on of important hospitals to the care and control of infectious diseases, and to the general and individual maintenance of physical stamina, among the troops. From having only four or five hundred Army surgeons not so long ago, we have expanded the service to a force of almost 20,000, of whom more than 15,000 a few weeks ago were officers on active duty. These include many hundreds of the most capable and distinguished surgeons and practitioners of the country. They have not entered the Army to engage in a new profession, but to employ knowledge and skill along the lines of their life work. Many of these men are known not only throughout the United States, but among the leaders of their profession in all European countries. Some of them are teaching the surgeons of England and France many new and im-



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MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM C. GORGAS, SURGEON-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY

proved methods. This is the one part of our Army that is already highly trained and proficient in its own specialty, and not surpassed.

Growth  
of the  
Service

Besides the active medical officers, who will soon number more than 20,000, there are in the medical department already more than 40,000 nurses and aids, and 200,000 enlisted men. Moreover, during periods of illness and treatment the doctors are in command of the sick and wounded; and in so large an army as ours has grown to be, those under medical care must always be a considerable number. One does not like to estimate how many of these men the Army Medical Department may soon have to accept. What we do know is that this branch of the military service is going to spare no effort to heal the sick and restore the wounded. Most of these thousands of doctors are making personal sacrifices in leaving their homes and professional business, and accepting the small pay that the Government provides. There is no future in the army for them, and when the war is over, they must try to re-establish themselves; and this will in many cases be difficult. Great work has been done by men like Dr. Franklin H. Martin and Dr. Charles H. Mayo in assisting Surgeon-General Gorgas to build up the immense Medical Reserve Corps.

*Medical  
Rank and  
Authority*

The precise technical and military merits of the controversy among the Army heads regarding the rank and authority that ought to be accorded to the medical officers are not widely understood by laymen. We shall not attempt to discuss them, and we are sure that there is no conscious desire in high quarters at Washington to deprive our Medical Corps of the kind of recognition that the French and British armies bestow upon men of like importance. There is doubtless a solution of the controversy that will meet the best interests of the Army; and this is all that the friends and supporters of the Medical Corps would desire. Their object undoubtedly is to see that in their own strictly professional work they are not hampered any more than the board of health in a city administration is hampered in its essential sphere by the police department or any other jurisdiction. It is the more important that American medical officers be given ample authority, because, of necessity, we have had to create vast numbers of new and inexperienced line officers.

*Educating for  
a Solid  
Nation*

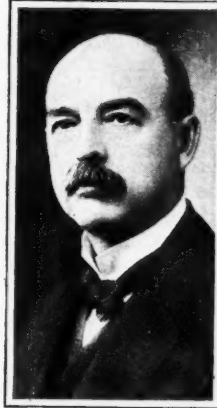
Early in April there was held an "Americanization Conference" in Washington, to promote the best means for unifying the nation through education in citizenship, and in such fundamental things as the common use of the English language. Many Governors were present, and a fresh impulse was given to the efforts of those who are working to amalgamate our foreign elements and elevate the quality of our citizenship. Secretary Lane, in a brilliant speech before the members of this conference, said:

We are trying a great experiment in the United States. Can we gather together people of different races, creeds, conditions, and aspirations who can be merged into one? If we cannot do this, we will fail; indeed, we have already failed. If we do this, we will produce the greatest of all nations, and a new race that will long hold a compelling place in the world.

Mr. Lane's analysis disclosed the fact that our system of universal education is not yet thorough, and that the draft brings into the army a good many men who cannot read English or understand the orders. He looked forward to success under General Foch's leadership with America's aid, and believed that the reactions of war upon our national life would be uplifting. He advocates western land improvement for soldiers.

*Our  
Patriotic  
Indians*

In the Civil War period, the American Indian was a serious problem. There was a Sioux uprising in Minnesota, and there were troubles elsewhere in the West. In the years following '65 there were some bloody encounters in which old army officers who are still living participated. A gratifying change has come about in our treatment of the Indians,



HON. CATO SELLS  
(Indian Commissioner)

and in their attitude towards the Government. Some thousands of Indians are in the present army, and many thousands of them are fully incorporated into the body of American citizenship. Elsewhere in this number we print an encouraging statement regarding the Indian situation from the Hon. Cato Sells, who has for five years, in the office of Indian Commissioner, done

so much to give effect to a new and a better policy in dealing with Indian affairs.

*Porto Rico  
Loyal and  
Contented*

We are also publishing (from the pen of a Porto Rican, Mr. Emilio J. Pasarell) a fine expression of the good feeling towards the United States that prevails in the populous island to whose people last year we accorded in simple justice the privileges of full American citizenship. The Porto Ricans are a very old Spanish community; but they are now learning English with avidity through their improved schools. The new Porto Rican university can be made to play a great part in the growing intercourse between North America and South America. Many of its students can be sent for a time to our institutions in the United States, while in turn it will become possible to send young Americans to San Juan for instruction in the Spanish language and literature, and in the history and institutions of Latin America. It will be desirable to give special training to young Porto Ricans for our consular and diplomatic services, and to utilize them increasingly in our governmental and commercial intercourse with South America. Porto Rico's best period is beginning.



*As to the  
Overman  
Bill*

In times of great emergency many decisions can be taken successfully which in ordinary times might lag for decades or for generations. We are rapidly reconstructing the agencies of government, in order that common aims and purposes may be served and essential things put first. We shall emerge into the forthcoming period of peace and reconstruction with a mechanism of national administration too much altered to be changed back. We shall not return to the conditions which had previously existed in our institutions of government and politics. For fully thirty-five years President Wilson has advocated, for the sake of efficiency, a different kind of relationship between the executive and legislative branches. He has done much already to prepare the way for a change. He appears at the Capitol and addresses Congress in his own person. He visits the President's room in the Senate wing, and meets law-makers on public business. He formulates Administration policies involving legislation, and gives them something of the effect of Government bills in Parliament. He has lately been seeking to have the Overman bill passed, which would give the President authority to rearrange the departments and bureaus of administration, so that the executive power might be wielded in the most direct ways, and not obstructed by cumbersome machinery which is found to work badly, but which has been set up from time to time by statutes and cannot be re-arranged by the superintendent of the shop without the consent of the board of directors.

*"Making  
Democracy  
Efficient"*

It is objected by many able and intelligent Senators and Representatives in Congress that the President might make this or that sweeping change if the Overman bill became a law. But why should he not do so? The most unusual and striking argument for the Overman bill that we have read is presented in this number of the REVIEW by Dr. Frederick A. Cleveland. We have no man who is a higher authority on budgetary procedure, and no abler student of all that pertains to efficiency in public administration than Dr. Cleveland. His scientific and practical work has had such high recognition that it needs no endorsement. In this article, Dr. Cleveland endeavors to show that if the Overman bill were passed—especially with a simple amendment or two before the final vote—it would enable the President to give us in

effect that very kind of coöperation between the executive and the law-making branches that he has always believed to be necessary for good results. Dr. Cleveland thinks that the Overman bill would not merely strengthen the hand of the President and his Cabinet, but would also serve to enhance the importance of Congress, while advancing us many long steps in the direction of the kind of government that would give leadership its full opportunity, while preserving the principle of democratic control. Thus, without constitutional amendments, the supreme demands of the war period for unimpeded efficiency may give us—to our permanent benefit—a much better working system of government. Let us try the experiment of adopting strong executive leadership, at once efficient and safeguarded.

*Settling the  
Irish  
Question*

Our friends in the United Kingdom, engaged in the greatest military struggle of their history, have also been showing a new spirit of unity and a disposition to settle, out of hand, questions of long dispute. First of these is the Irish question. Disasters in France made the so-called "man-power bill" that had been pending in Parliament for some time a matter of life and death urgency. The armies have had to be maintained by calling to the service men whose labor in mines and workshops had heretofore been regarded as essential. On April 9, Mr. Lloyd George announced that the bill would be so amended as to extend conscription to Ireland. This proposal met with bitter and threatening opposition from the Irish Nationalist members of the House of Commons, and from influential quarters in Ireland. Many Englishmen thought it unwise; but the proposal was upheld by a great majority in the Commons. Sons of Irishmen in the United States have a great place in our new army, and are not able to say why Irishmen in the United Kingdom should not fight on the same terms as Scotchmen, Englishmen, and Welshmen. It was plain, however, that Mr. Lloyd George would not stop with Irish conscription. He was determined to give Ireland Home Rule without further dallying and regardless of the opposition of Ulster.

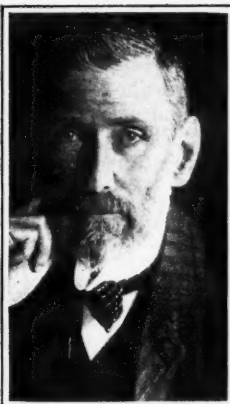
*Home Rule  
Follows  
Conscription*

In both measures the Prime Minister had felt his ground and knew where he stood. Sir Edward Carson, declaring that at least the German menace was a much worse thing

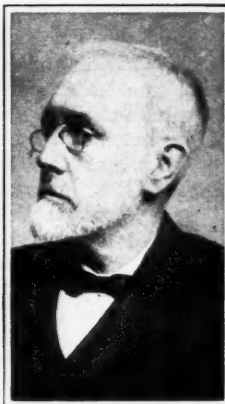




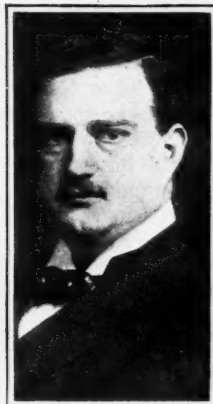
JOSEPH DEVLIN



SIR HORACE PLUNKETT



JOHN DILLON



CAPT. WM. A. REDMOND

(Of these four prominent Irish leaders, Sir Horace Plunkett has served as Chairman of the Irish Convention, and Mr. John Dillon is successor of the late John Redmond, as leader of the Nationalist Party. Joseph Devlin is a conspicuous member of Parliament, and Captain Redmond has been chosen to fill the seat of his father in the House of Commons.)

than Irish Home Rule, yielded his former position without altering his views. Life-long opponents of Home Rule who are Mr. Lloyd George's colleagues in the present Coalition Ministry also accepted the situation and helped in good faith to draw up the bill. It was announced that the Cabinet would resign if the House of Lords obstructed and delayed the passage of Home Rule for Ireland. It was expected that the new bill would differ in various ways from the Home Rule act which had been passed four years ago, but which was suspended and did not go into effect on account of the great war and the attitude of Ulster. The Irish Convention, which had been sitting for so many months behind closed doors under the chairmanship of Sir Horace Plunkett, had not been able to agree. A large majority had made a report advocating Home Rule. A minority, mostly of Ulstermen, had made a separate report. There were differences on the subject of finances and on the question of a separate system of customs, or import taxes.

*Recognizing  
Outside  
Sentiment*

It is probable that the bill to be adopted will recognize the federal principle. It is surmised that there may, at some time in the future, be a Scotch Home-Rule government for strictly Scotch affairs, another for English affairs, and perhaps one for Wales, so that the present government at Westminster might become a general and imperial one, including representation from the overseas dominions. But these further developments are not for the present. The immediate problem is to produce contentment and re-

store normal conditions in Ireland. Mr. Lloyd George spoke very strongly of the Irish question as affecting American opinion. He was careful to make it clear that there was no interference on the part of the American Government with any phase of British or United Kingdom politics. But since America was coming so strongly to the aid of Britain, he thought it right that Americans should have evidence that every possible effort was being made to reconcile Ireland.

*British  
Endurance*

It was plain that one full month of the German offensive, with its series of British defeats and of German victories for which school holidays were declared in Prussia, had done more to create the spirit of victory in the British Empire than anything else that had happened in four years. To be sure, there were alternations of hope and despondency as the loss of one strategic point or strip of fighting ground followed another. But giving ground and maintaining the fighting line was good strategy, at least up to a certain point. The question of British man-power, and the puzzling inquiries regarding official assurances that had previously been given us as to the numerical superiority of the British armies, in a crisis like this become primarily matters for the British themselves to discuss. The courage of the British fighting men, privates and officers alike, cannot be exaggerated. Since at last unity of military command has been attained, this is not the time to express vain regrets that so necessary a step could not have been taken two years sooner. The obstacles were not slight.

*Unifying  
the Home  
Control*

Both Mr. Simonds and Mr. Maurice Léon, in this number of the REVIEW, accord high and just praise to General Foch as a leader and strategist acceptable to the armies themselves, and trusted by the Allied governments. Foch seems to have some of the qualities of Robert E. Lee and some of those of U. S. Grant. It was inevitable that there should have been certain changes in British ministerial and military leadership. The crisis seems to have strengthened Mr. Lloyd George, and to have brought out his best qualities. It has enabled him to do several things of importance that national conservatism or prejudice had prevented his doing in less critical times. Among the political changes to be noted is the sending of the Earl of Derby to Paris as Ambassador, and the transferring of Lord Milner from the War Cabinet to the post of War Minister left vacant by the transfer of Derby. Milner has the reputation in England of being a great administrator, and they call him a "Prussian"—not in motive or spirit, but in his passion for systematic efficiency in government work. Mr. Austen Chamberlain becomes a member of the War Cabinet. Various changes, particularly the removal of Lord Derby from the War Office at this moment, are to be understood as moves in the direction of a more thorough support of the policy of putting British military resources at the command of General Foch. It is understood that the recent Secretary of War had supported the late Chief of Staff, General Sir William Robertson, in opposing Premier Lloyd George's policy of complete unity of military command in France.

*Reserves  
Beginning to  
Count*

With the beginning of the second month of this great offensive on the Western Front, the war reaches its climax in a matching, between the two contesting groups, of their reserve strength. The terrible offensives of the first month had cost the Germans heavily. They were able to pour fresh troops in constantly, massing them in such a way that the English could not assemble equal forces at the main points of attack. But through the terrible pounding the British never quailed; and at the end of a month there began to appear something like a restoration of balance. As Mr. Simonds explains, however, the third great phase of the German offensive was soon to begin, and it promised to be the most desperate of all.

*Italians  
Also in  
France*

It was therefore encouraging to note the splendid spirit with which all of the Allies were rising to the emergency. Thus, the following announcement by the Premier of Italy, Dr. Vittorio Orlando, in the Chamber of Deputies at Rome on April 18 was received with great acclaim:

Italy, which follows with admiration the heroic efforts of the Anglo-French troops on the western front, could not remain absent from the battle-fields of France. She wishes to bring her allies tangible proof of solidarity, and very soon the colors of Italian regiments will fly over the fields of Picardy beside those of the French, British, American, Belgian and Portuguese, thus sealing the union which exists between the allied peoples and governments.

Italy recovered her morale when French and English troops, with artillery, came promptly to her aid last fall, stemming the Austro-Germans on the Piave. Though still short of artillery, Italy has large numbers of trained men, and it is man-power that is most needed in France. Our map (on facing page) showing the whole of France and the fringes of adjacent countries, makes it easy to see how, with the railroad facilities existing, troops can readily be sent from Turin and points in Northern Italy to distributing points in France like Lyons. A million trained troops from Italy could be moved to the battle-fronts in France more quickly than American troops from most of our camps and cantonments could be brought to the Atlantic seaboard for embarkation.

*Ireland  
and  
America*

Nevertheless, our troops are moving, too; and if the Anglo-French strength holds through the month of May, it is permissible to believe that the forces under General Foch will have decided advantage in numbers, even as they are likely to have great superiority in morale. It is perhaps well that the long-smoldering troubles in Ireland should come to a sharp crisis. We are not prepared to believe that with Home Rule granted, and the actual draft enforcement postponed till midsummer or later, the resistance can take the form of rebellion. It is Ireland's great opportunity to join hands not only with England, but also with America, France, Italy, Belgium, and Serbia in a fight for liberty. John Redmond's spirit in supporting the larger cause was sure to have won for Ireland all that was valuable in her local demands. Perhaps Ireland needs persuasion more than she needs coercion. General French, in com-

mand of the British home troops, was sent across the Irish Channel late in April to head the forces that are there to overawe those threatening to rebel. Why would it not be a good plan to disembark 40,000 American soldiers at Queenstown, and distribute them for a short time throughout southern, western, and central Ireland, where they could help in recruiting and do much to bring about a better feeling? There is sympathy for Ireland in America; but it is the overwhelming American opinion that Ireland, for her own best future, must think less of her traditional grievances just now, and give hearty support to the Allied cause.

#### *Quiescence in the East*

The temporary relief that has come to Austria and Germany from peace with Russia and Rumania must not be underestimated. Russia had indeed lost millions of men in the war; but not without having inflicted terrible losses upon the armies of the Dual Monarchy. Apparently Austria has already been obtaining a certain amount of cereal food from the Ukraine. Germany's military-commercial system is grasping control of agricultural and other resources in Rumania, especially the petroleum output. There is friction between Bulgaria and her allies over territorial adjustments in the fertile area between the Danube and the Black Sea known as the Dobrudja. Tranquillity in all of these realms in the East is, in our opinion, only momentary under German mastery. But this transient peace is what gives Germany a chance to make her supreme effort in France. Political disturbances and official changes in Austria-Hungary have been numerous and significant.

#### *Finland's Ambitions*

Great attention during the past month has been drawn to affairs in Finland. The Reds (or Bolsheviks) have been crushed by the Whites, who are in alliance with Germany; and large German forces are at the Finnish capital, Helsingfors. Finland seems to have decided definitely to cast in her future with Germany as a protectorate or a

subordinate country; and as a reward for this position, she hopes to receive territorial gains, not slight, but extended. The flaring up of Finnish ambition is amazing. Thus, the Finns are proposing to take from Norway the Arctic province known as Finmarken. They aspire to that part of Russian Lapland that comprises the Kola Peninsula, which is almost surrounded by the Arctic Ocean and the inland sweep of the White Sea. They propose to have the district comprising a part of the province of Olonetz, stretching along the eastern boundary of Finland between St. Petersburg and the White Sea. It is said that they have even gone so far as to hope that Germany will let them have St. Petersburg itself. It remains to be seen whether the Black Sea, the Gulf of Bothnia, and the Gulf of Finland are to pass under the control of Germany, or whether the Scandinavian countries and Russia are to have at least equal rights in these waters that are so essential to their political independence and to their commercial welfare. It may appear that Finland is too ready to stake everything upon the view that Germany's domination is permanent.



(On this map, the black strip shows the part of France that the Germans occupied at the beginning of the present offensive. The lighter shaded spot to westward shows the drive approaching Amiens, and the smaller area to the north is near Ypres)



A VIEW FROM A HIGH POINT SHOWING A PART OF THE FINNISH CAPITAL CITY OF HELSINGFORS

*Plight  
of the  
Neutrals*

There is, of course, no doubt as to the disagreeable plight in which Finland found itself after the earlier and more hopeful phases of the Russian Revolution. Finland, like the Ukraine, wanted independence and civil order, and was too well educated to accept Leninism and the rule of the Soviets. The small neutral countries that would like to assert themselves against Prussian militarism are nevertheless in a dire predicament. It is said that in Norway they have been feeding a mixture of wood pulp and dry fish to the cattle for lack of fodder; and now the cattle are being slaughtered because the pastures must be devoted to raising rye and potatoes for human food. The Dutch Government and people have taken the decisions of President Wilson and the British Government respecting the use of Holland's merchant ships in a spirit of petulance that may be excused on the ground of the long-continued pressure to which Holland has been subjected by Germany. It is reasonable to say that we cannot spare breadstuffs to Holland in these times unless Dutch shipping can be made to render us some reciprocal service, not belligerent in its nature. Unfortunately for the wealthy but hungry Netherlands, Germany tells them that they can not do business on reasonable terms with England and America, unless they take the risk of having their ships and food cargoes torpedoed. The tendency to come under full German influence has been increasing in Sweden. Germany has been paying well for Swedish iron ores, Denmark's situation is exceedingly precari-

ous. Spain is still a battle-ground of rival propaganda. Switzerland carries burdens of anxiety with unfailing spirit.

*America  
and  
Japan*

Every month we understand better the extent to which German diplomacy had for a number of years been endeavoring to create animosity between the United States and Japan. Even now those poisonous influences are at work trying to make the United States believe that Japan has an understanding with Germany by which she may seize and keep a large part of Eastern Siberia, while Germany exploits Russia and great portions of Asia. The cartoon (see next page) from a paper published in the German language in Switzerland carries this sort of suggestion. It is our opinion that Japan has a mission to perform on the continent of Asia, and that it is no more our duty to discourage Japan's destined work in the Eastern world than it has been at any time the business of Japan to look askance at our progress and development in the Western Hemisphere. We in America are friendly to the people of China, and do not believe that they will fail to assume full and unquestioned control of their own territories and resources. As neighbors, the Japanese and Chinese must adjust all differences and go forward in harmony. Count Ishii's arrival as Ambassador brings to Washington a statesman for whom we in America have an exceptionally high regard. Japan's services to the cause of the Allies have been greater and more varied than is commonly known.



*American  
Propaganda*

It has been no easy task to offset in the Latin-American countries, whose real interests are bound up with our own, the insidious and persevering work of German agents. In Mexico, in Argentina, in Chile, and elsewhere, the influences inspired by Germany against the United States have been too harmful to be disregarded. It is not the policy of the United States to oppose such things by German methods. American propaganda is frank and open. A good deal of this honorable kind of missionary work has been done through the Public Information Bureau at Washington. That agency has carried on a variety of undertakings, and it has engaged the efforts of a large number of men who are making sacrifices to put their talents at the services of the country. Allusions last month made references to "tons of George Creel's literature in the mails" as a matter of reproach. When the Bureau was established, with Mr. Creel as civilian chairman and a committee of cabinet members controlling it, there was fear lest it might assume an attitude restrictive of the proper freedom of the press. It has proved, on the contrary, to be a supporter of the rights of the press, and it has done much to promote a policy of publicity as against one of undue official secretiveness.

*A  
Useful  
Bureau*

This Bureau has been an agency for arousing patriotism, through an army of lecturers, through moving pictures, and in divers other ways. Its pamphlet publications have been of immense interest and value. It would have been impossible for any man accepting so difficult a post as that which was assigned to Mr.

Creel to escape criticism and attack, especially, if through any seeming inadvertence on his part there might appear a favorable opportunity to make political capital. Mr. Creel the other day referred to the recent unpreparedness of the United States as affording convincing proof that, with all our superiority of resources, we were wholly without aggressive plans or aims. A misquotation of one single sentence in a rousing patriotic speech, caused much needless agitation. This REVIEW has stood consistently through a number of years for immense naval development, universal military training, and a rounded state of preparedness for what might happen in a world-period of menacing unrest. But the country as a whole did not accept our views. Mr. Creel as a journalist was evidently an exponent of the feeling of the great American majority which, up to a certain time, thought our influence in the world was better without military preparation than with it. Meanwhile, the Bureau of Public Information, under his guidance has done its full share in arousing the country to its present mood of vigorous action, and full war preparedness.

*Labor and the  
Patriotic  
Spirit*

The most delicate and difficult problem that the country has had to meet thus far is wrapped up in the single word "labor." Most of the leaders of organized labor have been patriotic in spirit, while tactful in their methods. They have understood the restlessness of the workers under hard conditions of living, and have not believed in restricting the ordinary freedom of associated men to make demands and to resort to strikes. Gradually, however, the atmosphere of patriotism is permeating

the relations of capital and labor, and the danger of strikes and lockouts in essential industries like shipbuilding seems to be overcome. A kind of supreme court of adjustment for labor questions in war industries has been established, ex-President Taft being the member-in-chief on behalf of the employers, and Mr. Frank Walsh the special representative chosen on behalf of labor. Mr. Schwab's great experience in these matters and his popularity with the many thousands of men in the various plants controlled by the Bethlehem Steel Company, including im-



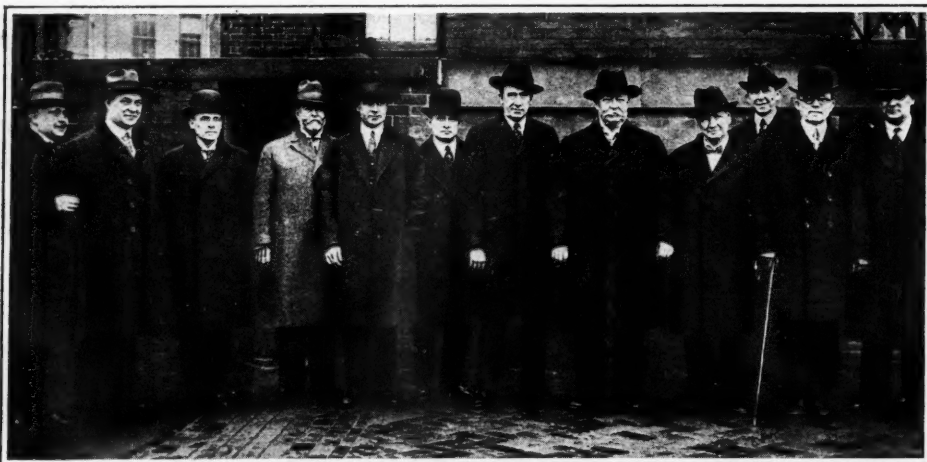
## JAPAN AND GERMANY IN THE FAR EAST

“See! The Jap stretches his hand towards Siberia!”

“Foolish thought! He simply wants to shake hands with the German.”

From *Nebelspalter* (published in German at Zurich, Switzerland)  
May—2





THE NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD, FOR THE SETTLEMENT OF CAPITAL AND LABOR QUESTIONS IN WAR INDUSTRIES

(Mr. Taft was selected as chief representative of employers, and Mr. Walsh as the chief representative of labor. The other members are well-known men, some of the employing class and others labor leaders. From left to right, in the illustration, are: B. L. Worden, W. H. VanDervoort, Loyall A. Osborne, L. F. Loree, Frank J. Hayes, T. A. Rickert, William L. Hutcheson, William H. Taft, Secretary of Labor Wilson, C. E. Michael, Frank P. Walsh, and Victor A. Olander)

mense shipyards, make his appointment as Director-General of Shipbuilding a fortunate thing from the standpoint of efficient labor in the most vital of all the industries. There are proposals afoot to register every man between the ages of 18 and 50 and make millions available for war service. Such a plan has value, but it could not be administered by the army. Civilian authorities should sort out the citizens and assign them to their tasks; and this should apply also, as it now does in part through the local exemption boards, to the selection of men for military training and service. We have always believed that the principle of the selective draft should have very much larger and broader application.

Waterways  
to be  
Utilized

The unifying of transportation agencies goes on apace. A fresh evidence of Mr. McAdoo's brilliancy in making quick and sagacious decisions was given last month when it was decided that the Government would construct and operate an immense fleet of barges on the New York canals. At an outlay equal to about half the cost of the Panama Canal, the State of New York is just now completing (as recent articles in this magazine have set forth) the deepened and widened water communications, chiefly the Erie Canal, which connect the great lake system with the Hudson River and the Atlantic Ocean.

There was a time when American canals played a great part in the upbuilding of the country. Then came the railroads, and their enterprise put the canals out of business. But now traffic has so grown that waterways and railroads must be used together. The rivalry has ceased; and much of the money heretofore spent for river, harbor, and canal improvements will now find its justification. Mr. McAdoo, Mr. John Skelton Williams, and the other heads of railway management



A PEACE WITHOUT ANNEXATIONS AND INDEMNITIES  
From the *World* (New York)

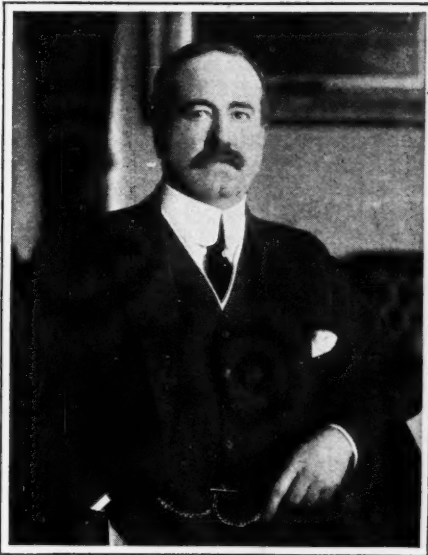
and finance, are surrounding themselves with men of experience, skill and high standing in the world of transportation affairs, and the outlook is hopeful from all standpoints.

*The War  
Finance  
Corporation*

On April 5, President Wilson signed the bill creating the War Finance Corporation. The new institution is one of the most interesting and stupendous experiments in the history of American finance. It is avowedly an emergency war measure. At the very juncture when, in response to war demands, our railroads had to carry immensely increased quantities of freight, our steel and other factories are having suddenly to double their production, and when our coal, copper and other mines are called on for vastly increased activity—the Government itself must take many billions of dollars for its war loans. In other words, just at the time when an exceptional need for current working capital for industrial operations is caused by the feverish productive activities of war, it becomes almost impossible for thousands of concerns to get the money or credit necessary for their larger operations because the Government is practically monopolizing money and credit in floating its Liberty Loans. To remedy this serious situation, to see that any bank or railroad or industrial concern whose operations are of value, directly or indirectly, in the conduct of the war, may get the money or credit it actually needs—is the function of the War Finance Corporation. Its emergency nature is shown in the provisions for its being, which give it a maximum life of ten years but prohibit it from exercising functions other than liquidation after six months following the war's end.

*The Structure  
of the  
Corporation*

The five directors of the War Finance Corporation include the Secretary of the Treasury. The Capital Issues Committee is to be composed of seven members appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate. Three of them must be members of the Federal Reserve Board, and none of them, or any officer or employee, can take part in the determination of any question affecting his personal interests. The capital stock is \$500,000,000 and the Corporation is empowered to issue a maximum of three billion dollars in bonds, maturing in not less than one year nor more than five years from the date of issue. The Administration had asked for a maximum bond authorization



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HON. JOHN SKELTON WILLIAMS, OF VIRGINIA

(Mr. Williams for the past five years has been Controller of the Currency, and is a member of the Federal Reserve Board. He is now at the head of government railroad finance under Mr. McAdoo, and one of the most important and successful of war-period officials)

of four billion dollars, and the House, with the fear of inflation before it, had cut the amount down to two billion, the final arrangement being an even compromise.

*What the  
Corporation  
Can Do*

The new institution can make advances for not more than five years to any bank or trust company which has loaned money to an established business whose operations are considered valuable from the standpoint of the prosecution of the war. Such a loan to a banking institution is limited to 75 per cent. of the original loan made by it to the business. The War Finance Corporation gets the collateral that the banker had received from the business and also gets the endorsement of the banker. Or, the full amount of the loan can be obtained from the Corporation if the banker furnishes approved collateral equal to 133 per cent. of the amount advanced. The Corporation can also help savings banks, commercial banks, building and loan associations, with loans running not over one year if 133 per cent. of collateral is furnished. Finally, the Corporation can make direct loans for periods of five years or less to any private borrower who has not been able to obtain funds on reasonable terms through the ordinary chan-

nels. In such special cases, the loans must be secured by 125 per cent. of collateral. That the Corporation may become an important factor in stabilizing the market for United States Government bonds is suggested by the grant to it of power to subscribe for and deal in all classes of our Government bonds issued subsequent to September 24, 1917.

*The Capital  
Issues  
Committee*

The four members of the Capital Issues Committee who are not on the Federal Reserve Board are to receive \$7,500 a year, and the President is given authority to appoint the first chairman and remove any member. The Committee is to have its principal office in Washington but may meet in other places. The highly important function of this Committee is to pass on new offerings of securities. No person or firm or corporation can raise money by the offer of securities having a par value of more than \$100,000 without the approval of this Committee, given after consideration of the matter from the standpoint of the war needs of the country. Railroads are excepted from this censorship of capital issues, nor does it apply to refunding operations.

*Wage Increases  
in Oil and  
Steel*

A striking suggestion of the increased need for working capital in war times, even in transacting a level amount of business, is given in the record of wage increases in the great basic industries. The United States Steel Corporation announced a 15 per cent. wage increase, effective April 15. The steel worker is receiving today 188 per cent. more than came to him for the same kind of work in 1898. This increase of 15 per cent. follows five 10 per cent. advances made by the Steel Corporation since the war began. There also came in April a 10 per cent. wage increase for practically all of the 30,000 employees of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. Including this latest change, the Standard Oil Company has given total wage increases of 79 per cent. in the last two years and a half, and a total increase for common labor of 98 per cent.

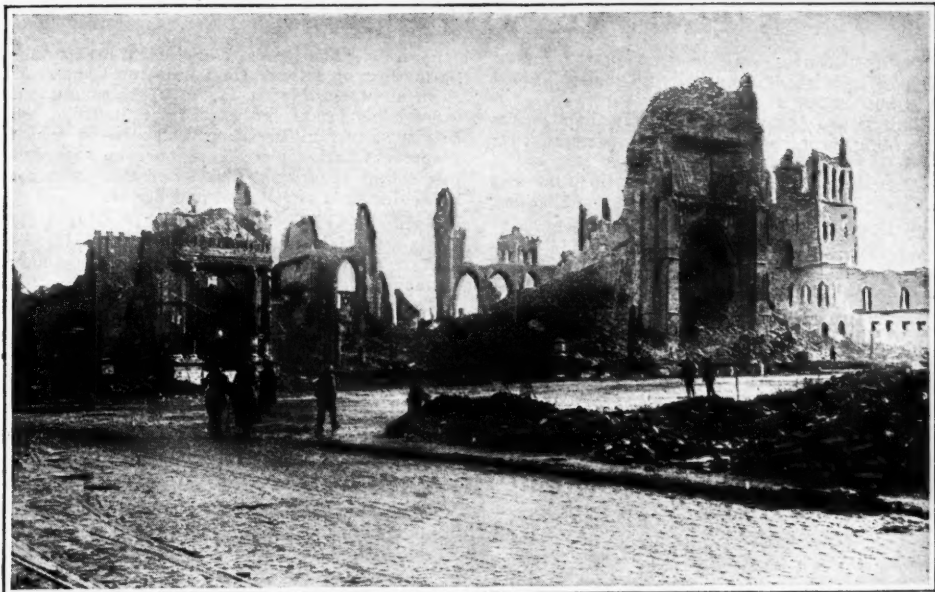
*Tax Totals  
an Agreeable  
Surprise*

Preliminary reports from revenue collectors, received by the middle of April, indicate that the Government will receive from its levies of income and excess-profits taxes for the year 1917 very much more than Congress and the Treasury Department had estimated as

a probable result. This amount had been figured at \$2,500,000,000 for income and excess-profits taxes combined. Estimates now run as high as \$4,000,000,000. If the final results show that the Government will receive anything like the larger sum, it is understood the Treasury may reconcile itself to a plan for payment of the taxes in installments instead of in a lump sum on June 15. The success of the Third Liberty Loan will also have a bearing on this question, which is of anxious interest to thousands of business concerns. It seems probable now that the Internal Revenue Bureau will have to examine and check no less than twelve million separate tax returns, divided into approximately six million ordinary income reports and six million excess-profits and other tax returns. On April 2 it was announced that Commissioner Roper, of the Internal Revenue Department, had appointed, with the approval of Secretary McAdoo, a board of excess-profits tax reviewers with Dr. T. S. Adams of Yale University as chairman, to aid the Bureau in administering the excess-profits provisions of the War Revenue Act.

*The Third  
Liberty Loan  
Afloat*

On April 6 the campaign for subscriptions to the third Liberty Loan began with tremendous enthusiasm. Subscriptions of the first week of the "drive" magnificently surpassed the results of the corresponding stages of the preceding loans. Toward the middle of the month allotted to the campaign the subscription totals reported were not so favorable, but it is usual for some phase of such an effort to show a certain lag, and there can be no doubt that the loan will be splendidly successful in a heavy oversubscription within the four weeks set for its flotation. Certainly the spirit of the country has never before been more thoroughly or universally aroused. It is true that an obligation of the United States paying  $4\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. and running for ten years is worthy of enthusiasm simply from an investment point of view; but the nation would evidently have risen to the occasion if the investment return had been much below, instead of above, an attractive income basis. Bankers, professional men, women and school boys have thrown themselves into the work of "backing up our boys in France"; hundreds of thousands of citizens have dropped everything to do their part in making the loan truly the affair of the whole nation.



Photograph by Western Newspaper Union

THE RUINS OF YPRES, ONE OF THE IMMEDIATE OBJECTIVE POINTS IN THE GREAT GERMAN ATTACK

## RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From March 21 to April 20, 1918)

### *The Last Part of March*

March 21.—The most stupendous attack of the war is begun by the Germans, against fifty miles of the British and French line in France—from Arras to La Fère.

The British Admiralty publishes its record of merchant ships sunk to the end of 1917; British ships, 7,079,492 tons; total ships, 11,827,572 tons; new shipping amounted to only 6,606,275 tons.

March 23.—Paris is bombarded by long-range guns behind the German lines, from a distance of more than seventy miles.

March 24-25.—The Germans in their advance occupy Peronne and Bapaume.

March 27.—Lloyd George, British Premier, appeals for "American reinforcements in the shortest possible space of time," declaring that "we are at the crisis of the war, attacked by an immense superiority of German troops."

Odessa is reported captured by Soviet and Ukrainian troops.

March 28.—The German drive in Picardy thrusts a new wedge in the French line, at Montdidier.

The United States completes an arrangement for the purchase of twelve large Japanese steamships (aggregating 100,000 tons), in return for the sale of an equivalent amount of steel for ship-building.

Major-General Pershing, commander-in-chief, offers all the American forces in France for service "in the greatest battle in history."

March 29.—The ninth day of the battle in France passes without German gain, and the first phase of the drive comes to an end; 1,000 square miles were lost to the Germans besides prisoners and guns.

General Ferdinand Foch, the French strategist, becomes generalissimo of the Allied forces in France—British, French, American, Italian, Belgian, and Portuguese.

Seventy-five persons are killed at Good Friday services in a Paris church by the explosion of a shell from the German long-range gun.

March 30.—Anti-conscription riots occur in the city of Quebec.

### *The First Week of April*

April 2.—Financial credits extended by the United States to its Allies in the first year of war reach a total of \$5,160,600,000.

The Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, Count Czernin, declares that the four points laid down by President Wilson on February 11 are a basis on which to discuss general peace; he doubts, however, whether the President will succeed in uniting the Allies on such a basis.

April 3.—Forty thousand German troops are landed at Hango on the southern coast of Finland.

April 4.—The German offensive is renewed in the region nearest to Amiens, but the British and French lines remain firm.

It is announced that American troops are occupying a new sector—on the Meuse heights south of Verdun.



April 5.—The American Army at the end of its first year of war totals more than 1,500,000 men and 127,700 officers.

Austria and France both issue official statements regarding peace discussions in Switzerland in August, 1917, and February, 1918.

A small force of Japanese and British marines is landed at Vladivostok, following the killing of a Japanese resident by Russians.

April 6.—President Wilson (speaking in Baltimore at a "Liberty Loan" meeting, on the anniversary of America's entering the war) condemns Germany's peace treaties forced upon Russia and Rumania, and proclaims that America will meet with "force to the utmost" German's challenge.

### *The Second Week of April*

April 9.—Premier Lloyd George places the Man Power bill before the House of Commons, providing for raising the age limit for compulsory service to fifty years (and in some cases fifty-five years), and also providing for extending conscription to Ireland.

April 9-10.—The German attack is shifted to the north, from La Bassée Canal to Armentières, British and Portuguese defenders being forced to retire six miles; at Messines Ridge, south of Ypres, the British withdraw two miles.

April 10.—The Russian Commissioner of Commerce states that the treaty with Germany has taken away 300,000 square miles of territory, with 56,000,000 inhabitants (32 per cent. of Russia's entire population), besides one-third of her railways, 73 per cent. of her iron, and 89 per cent. of her coal.

The Bessarabian Diet is reported to have decided in favor of union with Rumania.

The House of Commons passes the second reading of the Government's Man Power bill.

April 11.—The French Government makes public the text of a letter from Emperor Charles of Austria (dated March 31, 1917) communicated through his brother-in-law, Prince Sixtus of the Belgian army, to President Poincaré—in which Emperor Charles pledges support to "France's just claims regarding Alsace-Lorraine" and the reestablishment of Belgium and Serbia.

April 12.—Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig issues a special order to his army that "with our backs to the wall . . . each one of us must fight to the end."

The Irish Convention, after eight months of deliberation, presents a divided report to the British Government; it proposes an Irish Parliament of two houses, the Nationalists offering 40 per cent. of the membership to the Unionists; it was not found possible to overcome the objections of the Ulster Unionists.

The House of Commons, by a majority of 165, retains the Irish conscription clause in the Man Power bill.

April 13.—German troops occupy Helsingfors, Finland, after a battle lasting several days; the Finnish rebellion is said to be at an end.

April 14.—It is officially announced that the British and French governments have agreed to confer on General Foch the title of Commander-in-Chief of the Allied armies in France.

A German attack on American positions north of St. Mihiel is repulsed, with known enemy casualties of 64 killed and 11 prisoners.

The Navy Department announces that the *U. S. S. Cyclops* has not been heard from since leaving the West Indies on March 4, with 293 persons on board.

A Government report at Washington states that the increase in women employed in Great Britain since July, 1914, is 1,426,000.



A SCENE, IN HAM, ONE OF THE FRENCH VILLAGES CAPTURED BY THE GERMANS



*The Third Week of April*

April 15.—Count Czernin, Minister of Foreign Affairs in Austria-Hungary, resigns as a result of the disclosure of peace activities of the monarch.

The Reichstag majority is reported as accepting Chancellor von Hertling's new program, which substitutes a war indemnity and annexation of parts of Belgium and France for the July resolution of "no annexations, no indemnities."

The Turks recapture Batum, the Russian Black Sea port in the Caucasus.

April 16.—In the Ypres salient, the Germans capture the village of Bailleul and force the British to evacuate portions of Messines Ridge and Paschendaele Ridge—positions gained at great sacrifice earlier in the war.

The 1919 contingent of the French army (nineteen years of age) is called to training.

Bolo Pasha, convicted of conducting anti-war propaganda in the interest of the enemy, is executed in France.

April 17.—Baron Burian von Radecz, of Hungary (Count Czernin's predecessor) becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in Austria-Hungary.

French reinforcements in large numbers reach the British front in the north.

The British House of Lords passes the second reading of the Man Power bill.

April 19.—Premier Orlando announces that the Italian army now forms the right wing of the united Allied army in France.

Viscount Milner becomes Secretary of War in Great Britain, succeeding the Earl of Derby.



SIR HENRY WILSON, CHIEF OF THE BRITISH STAFF

(Premier Lloyd George declared last month that General Wilson had in January or February reached these conclusions: that the Germans would attack, on a wide front, against the British line, south of Arras, with the object of separating the British and French, and would succeed in penetrating the line somewhat. Almost in every detail, the Premier said, "that remarkable forecast has been verified in the event." General Wilson is an expert on topography)

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From March 21 to April 20, 1918)

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

March 21.—The Senate passes the Agricultural appropriation bill, carrying \$28,000,000 and increasing the Government's guaranteed wheat price from \$2.00 to \$2.50 per bushel.

The House passes the War Finance Corporation bill, with but two dissenting votes.

March 26.—In the Senate, discussion in criticism of the Administration predominates.

March 29.—The Senate passes the measure extending the Selective Draft to men who have reached the age of twenty-one years since registration day, June 5, 1917.

In the House, the Ways and Means Committee introduces a bill authorizing a Third Liberty Bond issue, increasing the total authorization to \$12,000,000,000, and raising to \$8,000,000,000 the amount available for loans to the Allied Governments.

March 30.—The House passes the Bond bill.

April 1-2.—Both branches adopt the conference report on the War Finance Corporation bill; as amended, it authorizes a capital stock of \$500,000,000 and bonds to \$3,000,000,000 additional.

April 2.—The House passes the bill appropriat-

ing \$50,000,000 for emergency construction of houses for workers in war industries. . . . Debate is begun on the Overman bill, giving the President power to reorganize Government departments and agencies.

April 3.—The Senate passes the Third Liberty Loan bill.

April 10.—The Senate adopts the so-called Sedition bill, correcting deficiencies in the Espionage Act of 1917. . . . The Committee on Military Affairs submits to the Senate a report on aircraft production; the situation is "gravely disappointing" and marked by "procrastination and indecision."

April 13.—The House passes the Senate bill changing the basis for the second draft from population to number of men in Class 1.

April 15-16.—Both branches adopt the conference report on the so-called Sabotage bill, carrying imprisonment penalties for interfering with war industry, but with punishment for strikers eliminated.

April 18.—The Senate passes a bill authorizing the melting of 350,000,000 silver dollars into bullion and establishing a price of \$1 an ounce for

Government purchases of silver; the measure will permit the settling of trade balances in silver and conserve gold.

The House refuses to concur in the Senate amendment to the Agricultural appropriation bill raising the guaranteed price of wheat to \$2.50 a bushel (from \$2.20, as fixed by the President).

April 19.—Governor Beeckman signs a bill passed by the Rhode Island Assembly, requiring men between 18 and 50 to be employed at least 36 hours a week.

#### AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

March 21.—The President signs the bill bringing railroads under Government operation and control until twenty-one months after the end of the war.

March 25.—The Secretary of the Treasury announces the terms of the Third Liberty Loan: \$3,000,000,000 offered, at 4¼ per cent., maturing in ten years.

March 26.—The Massachusetts House ratifies the proposed prohibition amendment to the federal Constitution, 145 votes to 91.

March 27.—The Director-General of Railroads agrees to advance \$43,964,000 to the New Haven Railroad, to meet notes about to mature.

March 28.—Ex-President Roosevelt addresses Maine Republicans in convention at Portland, pleading for more efficient planning and more vigorous prosecution of war.

March 30.—"Daylight saving" goes into effect throughout the United States, all clocks being set ahead one hour.

A national labor program is formulated by a special commission—recommending that there shall be no strikes or lockouts during the war, and that a labor mediation board be created.

April 2.—In a special election, Congressman Irvine L. Lenroot (Rep.) is chosen United States Senator in Wisconsin, to fill a vacancy, receiving 163,980 votes, as against 148,713 for Joseph E. Davies (Dem.), and 110,487 for V. L. Berger.

The Massachusetts Senate ratifies the prohibition amendment to the federal Constitution, 27 votes to 12, following similar action in the House; eleven States have thus approved the proposal.

April 6.—The War Department calls the first contingent of 150,000 men in the second draft of the National Army, to report at training camps throughout the country on April 26.

The President nominates Edward R. Stettinius and Frederick P. Keppel to be Assistant Secretaries of War.

April 9.—The President creates a National War Labor Board, with the same membership as the commission which recently investigated and framed a labor program.

April 10.—Secretary Daniels, speaking at Chicago, declares that 1275 vessels of 1,055,116 tons, were added to the Navy in the first year of war.

April 11.—The Government takes over 63 coastwise vessels—making, with railroad-owned vessels, a total of 111 coastwise ships, of nearly 400,000 tons, under Government control.

April 16.—Charles M. Schwab is made Director-General of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, to have entire charge of the Government's ship-building program.

April 17.—The Railroad Administration takes over the New York State barge canal system, nearing completion on a vastly enlarged scale.

April 19.—The House amends the Naval Appropriation bill, increasing the Marine Corps from 30,000 to 75,500.

#### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

March 22.—Antonio Maura forms a Cabinet in Spain, with three other former Premiers in his ministry.

April 8.—The Department of Agriculture forecasts a winter wheat crop of 560,000,000 bushels.

#### OBITUARY

March 20.—Gen. Lewis A. Grant, commander of the old Vermont brigade in the Civil War, 89.

March 21.—Warner Miller, U. S. Senator from New York (1881-'87), 78.

March 22.—Major Moraht, the German military critic. . . . Maggie Mitchell, the veteran American actress, 80.

March 23.—Homer Baxter Sprague, former president of the University of North Dakota, 89. . . . Sir Collingwood Schreiber, a distinguished Canadian consulting engineer, 87.

March 26.—Claude Achille Debussy, the noted French composer, 55. . . . Bishop Thomas W. Campbell, of the Reformed Episcopal Church, 66.

March 27.—Henry Adams, a distinguished historical writer, formerly editor of the *North American Review*, 80.

March 29.—Rufus Ellis Moore, collector of Oriental art objects, 78.

April 6.—John Q. A. Brackett, Governor of Massachusetts (1890-'91), 76. . . . Bishop Alfred Magill Randolph, of the Episcopal Church of Southern Virginia, 81.

April 8.—Henry G. Danforth, former Member of Congress from New York, 64. . . . Rear-Admiral John D. Ford, U. S. N., retired, 78.

April 9.—Charles Fleetwood Sise, creator of the telephone system in Canada, 84.

April 10.—Rear-Admiral Samuel P. Conly, U. S. N., retired, 69.

April 11.—William C. McDonald, first Governor of New Mexico, 59.

April 12.—Robert F. Broussard, United States Senator from Louisiana, 53. . . . Rudolph Blankenburg, recently reform Mayor of Philadelphia, 75.

April 14.—William Joel Stone, United States Senator from Missouri, chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, 69. . . . William P. Potter, Associate Justice of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, 61.

April 15.—Capt. R. Hugh Knyvett, a widely known war lecturer and writer (Australian), 30.

April 16.—A. J. McKelway, widely known as advocate of child-labor reform, 52.

April 17.—Don Santiago Aldunate, Chilean Ambassador to the United States, 59. . . . Luther Kountze, the New York banker, 76.

April 18.—Gen. A. Leo Knott, dean of the Baltimore bar.

April 19.—Col. George Pope, for twenty-four years president of the Manufacturers' Association, 74.

# THE WAR SPIRIT IN CARTOONS



GENERALISSIMO FOCH  
From the *World* (New York)



THE SPIRIT OF FRANCE CALLS YOU!  
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland, Ohio)



ARE WE DOWNHEARTED?

"Come the three corners of the world in arms,  
And we shall shock them; naught shall make us rue,  
If England to itself do rest but true."

—King John.

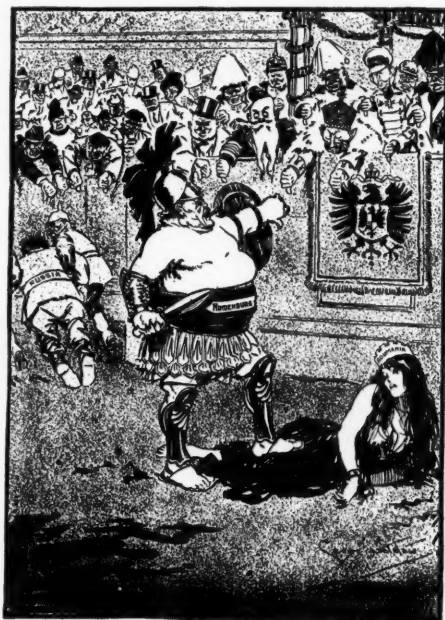
From the *Passing Show* (London)



WHO SAID "DEFEAT"?  
From the *World* (New York)

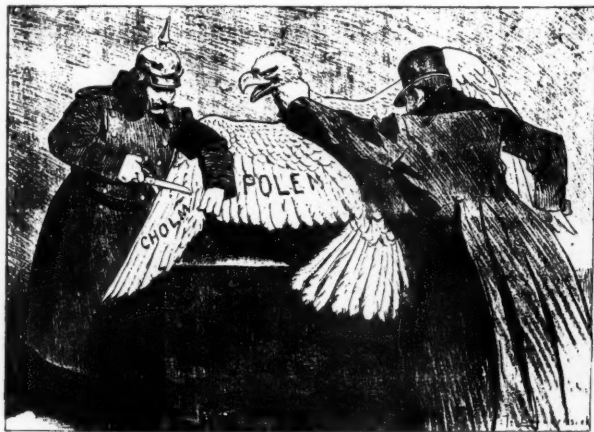


DOOR-MATS  
From *Evening News* (London)



HELPLESS RUMANIA  
"Thumbs down, all who want to see her mutilated!"  
—And the Huns are unanimous.  
From the *Passing Show* (London)

THE cartoonists have not missed the meaning of the great German drive on the Western Front and the magnificent resistance of the Allies, as these pages testify. They also comment on Germany's dealings with Russia, Poland, Rumania, and the neutral states.



THE FOURTH PARTITION OF THE POLISH EAGLE—AND THE BIRD  
IS NOT DEAD YET!

From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam, Holland)



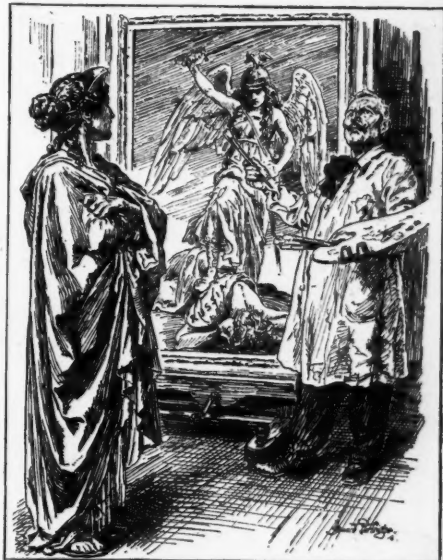
THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION—A PICTURE WITHOUT WORDS

From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)





HOME RULE OR CONSCRIPTION—THEY BOTH MEAN  
LIBERTY  
From the *World* (New York)



MADE IN GERMANY  
CIVILIZATION: "What's that supposed to represent?"  
IMPERIAL ARTIST: "Why, 'Peace,' of course."  
CIVILIZATION: "Well, I don't recognize it—and I never shall."  
From *Punch* (London)



POPULAR UKRAINIA  
GERMANY AND AUSTRIA: "Oh! We are delighted with your charms!"  
UKRAINIA: "Is it my charms—or my corn?"  
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich, Switzerland)



AFTER THE GOTHIA RAID  
"Say, mother, are the Böches frightened of us, that they should try to kill us?"  
From *La Victoire* (Paris)



TWO DISAPPOINTMENTS  
TIRPITZ: "Did you enjoy your dinner in Paris, General?"  
HINDENBURG: "As much as you enjoyed starving England."  
From the *Post-Dispatch* (Columbus, Ohio)



SPAIN AND AMERICA—A SOUTH AMERICAN VIEW

As this "uncle" makes use of my land for his business, I am going to shoot him on the wing. I swear it by the memory of Cuba!—From *Variedades* (Lima, Peru)

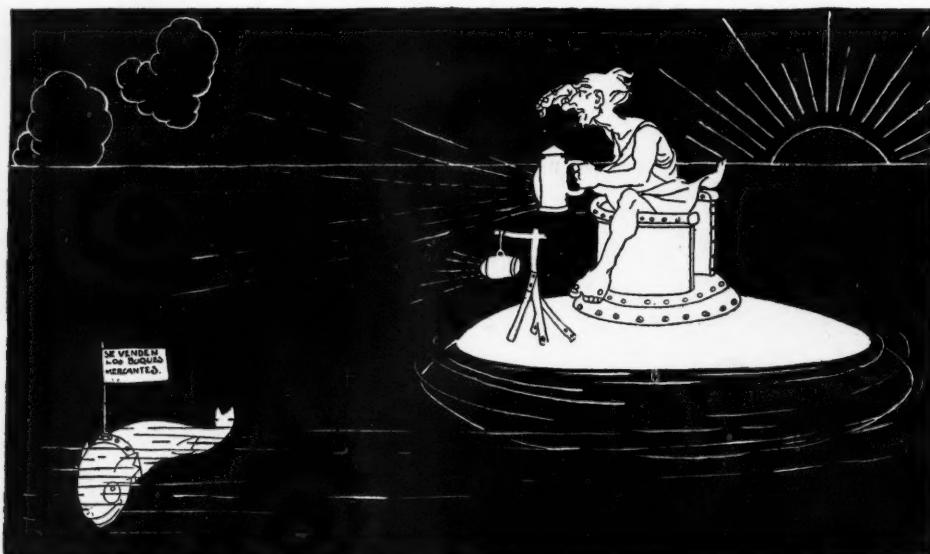


TEACHING THE DEAR NEUTRAL PEOPLES TO LOVE HIM

From the *Sunday News* (Dayton, Ohio)

On this page appear two South American cartoons of peculiar interest at this time, one treating of an imaginary situation between

the United States and Spain and the other of the shipping problem in Chile—just now at an acute stage.



THE SHIPPING SITUATION IN A SOUTH AMERICAN MARITIME NATION

DIóGENES: "As far as I can see (I say 'see,' though I do not see it) not a ship remains in Chile except the 'ship of state,' and that certainly is in a very bad state."

From *Sucesos* (Valparaiso and Santiago, Chile)

# FOCH—ALLIED COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF

BY MAURICE LÉON

**B**Y the appointment of Ferdinand Foch as Commander-in-Chief of all their forces in France, the Allied democracies have given the most striking answer that could be made to the "efficiency" claims of the German hegemony. It was long supposed that free countries were incapable of effectually co-ordinating their efforts in this war, that real unity in war could only be achieved under an autocrat able to subordinate every authority to his own, thereby making vassals of his Allies. The advantage which Germany has had in this war by reason of the centralization in her Emperor of all power over the forces of her imperial coalition has been indisputable, and indeed, was undisputed. But it was thought that her opponents must resign themselves to an inferior organization of their military resources because the superior organization of the Germans could not be achieved save at the same cost of an unthinkable subserviency.

This was error, as indeed anything must be held to be error which amounts to an admission that a system of medieval feudalism is essential to the highest efficiency. The formula of an allied commander-in-chief had been mooted a long time when Premier Lloyd George, speaking in Paris in November last upon his return from Italy, while General Foch was engaged in holding the Austro-Germans at the Piave, made public confession of his conversion to the idea, thereby again proving himself to be a leader of the widest vision. But national and personal susceptibilities were awakened in London which compelled him to defer action.

It will be to the everlasting credit of



GENERAL FERDINAND FOCH

President Wilson that at the Allied conference which followed shortly thereafter at which he was represented by Col. House as head of the American delegation, he threw the weight of American prestige into the scale in favor of unity of command. Then came the supreme argument in its favor out of the mouths of German cannon thundering past Bapaume and Noyon toward Arras and Amiens. To that argument there was no answer, and General Pershing having placed all available American resources in France under French direction in a message which will never be forgotten in France, General Ferdinand Foch was proclaimed Allied Commander-in-Chief by agreement

between Great Britain, France, and the United States.

These great democracies, free partners in an enterprise of self-preservation and liberation, have thus made one man their collective agent, with supreme authority to use to the best of his ability all their war resources against the new German onslaught. And this particular man has been chosen for the greatest military task of all times, because, by common consent, in which even the foe has been compelled to join, he is by all odds the greatest general on the Allied side.

For the realization of the event which thus came about, the writer of these lines had expressed a hope in an article on Premier Clémenceau, which appeared in the December, 1917, number of this REVIEW in these words (at p. 611):

By a happy coincidence, Foch is the man whose indomitable spirit and infinite resourcefulness appealed so forcibly to Clémenceau during his previous premiership that he appointed him at the head of France's war college, for which post Foch was not a candidate. Much of the brilliant work done by the French Army in this war is directly traceable to the spirit which Foch instilled into it, through his work in the war college and later in the field at the Marne, at Ypres, and elsewhere. If the United States and their Allies are able to carry unity of action to its right conclusion by agreeing on a commander-in-chief of all the Allied forces, Foch is the man.

The acceptance by British public opinion of the placing of the British armies in France under a French commander furnishes another instance of the magnificent spirit of Britain in a crisis. Such is the effect of sacrifices made by the partners on the side of democracy that the larger they are, the more the prestige of the country which makes them is enhanced.

This united action in the field, which is realized at last by the free countries, cannot be over-estimated as a factor indispensable to victory.

As these lines are being written the most momentous battle of the war since the Battle of the Marne is being fought. To those who

judge of the situation according to its physical manifestations rather than from any deeply rooted faith, the outcome is uncertain. When the German flood began pouring through Belgium in 1914, faith was needed to believe that it could be stopped and repelled; and without that faith the miracle could not have been accomplished. That faith was possessed in a superlative degree by two sons of the Pyrénées, men of the same generation. The older of the two became the commander-in-chief over practically all the forces engaged on the Allied side, while the other was his mainstay at the front. Together they prepared, fought and won the Battle of the Marne. And now it is for the younger to fight and win a greater Marne.

These two great military figures, Joffre and Foch, who come from the same corner of France, have reached together the topmost heights of fame; Joffre the massive, the reflective, in whose speech one detects the accent of the mountaineer from the Spanish border more readily than in that of Foch, who is the embodiment of lightning thought in action.

Master of theory in war, Foch is never fettered by it. His keen perception readily discerns the exception to the rule under any given conditions. He does not "play safe" by avoiding risks, but determines what is the lesser risk and takes it. Ever a partisan of the aggressive—of attack as the best defense—he never deceives himself as to just what can be accomplished under any given circumstances.

When asked to take command of the offensive at the Somme in 1916, he inquired as to the number of guns which were at his disposal. When told, he expressed himself somewhat thus: "We will be able to make an advance upon a limited front and thus we will bend the German line, but cannot expect to break it." His report in writing is said to have been in the hands of the government before the attack was begun, and it was confirmed to the letter by the subsequent event. Foch then knows what can be done and what cannot be



Photo by Western Newspaper Union  
GENERAL FOCH IN FIELD  
UNIFORM



done in a battle. And, in determining its outcome, he not only weighs the strength of the artillery and of every implement of war available, but appraises with rare exactitude the equations of leadership, morale, and man-power on either side. So much for his intellectual equipment. It is incomparable and is equalled in worth by his personal qualities.

The word "inspiring" fits Foch peculiarly. He has the faculty of inspiring men to rise to their highest level. It is said that just before the Battle of Mons-Charleroi, Field Marshal French felt doubtful of the advisability of accepting battle. The relations between the French and British commands were largely undefined. It was necessary that Sir John French should be induced to fit into Joffre's plan, making his wonderful little army (the "old contemptibles," as they are now known) a virtual part of France's army. Foch went to him. Never was tact in manner more perfectly combined with firmness in purpose. He won French over completely, and thereupon hastened to take his command at the center, where he was to fight and win, at Fère Champénoise, the decisive phase of the Battle of the Marne.

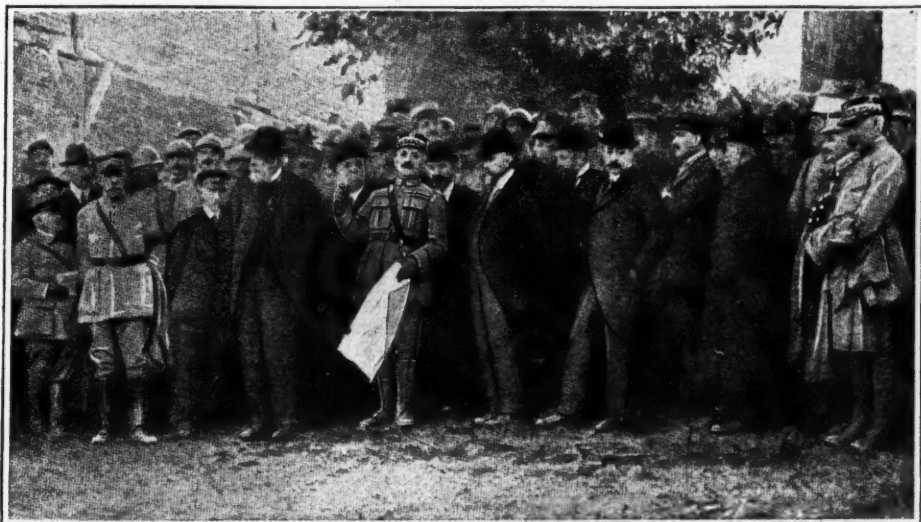
He exerts a veritable fascination alike upon officers and rank and file.

His subordinates say his words are few, and that often he makes his meaning unmistakable to them without resort to speech by

a mere gesture or by the way he bites the cigar which he is forever smoking (it is of the kind the privates buy). Upon rare occasions his reluctance to speak has been overcome. An instance was last year, on September 6 at the commemoration of the Battle of the Marne, the day signalized by the famous order to attack, which Joffre, by a wonderful coincidence, issued upon the anniversary of the birth of Lafayette. Foch then held his hearers under a spell by the power of a natural eloquence, sober and lucid and forceful. As he described the battle on the battlefield itself, before an audience which included President Poincaré, Premier Ribot, and other distinguished statesmen, Joffre, Marshal of France, stood near by following his description on a map.

It is a fortunate fact that among French generals none has been called upon as much as Foch to deal with British commanders and that he has their whole-hearted admiration and good will.

Foch and Haig, brothers in arms throughout the great war, fought and won at the Marne, and later at Ypres—again one of the whirlpools of the Western front, the predestined Armageddon of the struggle. With Pétain and Pershing and the hosts of freedom reinforced by American contingents, they battle anew as never before. Victory, which has ever attended them in the past, leads the way.



GENERAL FOCH EXPLAINING THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE—AT THE ANNIVERSARY CELEBRATION LAST SEPTEMBER

(To the left of General Foch, in this picture, is M. Ribot, then Premier. To the right is President Poincaré. At the extreme right is General Pétain)

# THE GREATEST BATTLE IN THE WORLD

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. THE BLOW AT BRITAIN

ON March 21 the Germans delivered their long-promised attack upon the Western front. The main blow fell upon the British Fifth Army on a thirty-five-mile front facing the towns of Cambrai, St. Quentin and La Fère. In the following weeks the zone of operations was extended northward from the Oise and the Scheldt to the Scarpe, the Lys and even toward the Yser. Before this western battle—the greatest battle in all human history—was three weeks old the whole British front from Amiens, in France, to Ypres, in Belgium, was aflame and assailed by the most terrific attack of the war.

At the outset of a discussion of this terrible month of military operations it is essential to revert for one moment to the conditions of the German gamble; for it was and is a gamble. Germany has staked all she has on the possibility of a military triumph—a decision, a win-the-war victory over Britain. These conditions are at once political and military.

With the collapse of Russia, Germany was at last able to reap a rich harvest as a result of her great efforts. Taken with her Balkan achievements, and her final destruction of Russian power of resistance (a destruction, to be sure, mainly accomplished by Trotzky and Lenine) Germany had now reached a point where she could erect new states and arrange new frontiers to the east and to the south, favorable to her future both politically and economically. Russia and the Balkans, together with Asiatic Turkey, were hers to exploit in the future, provided only she could get such a peace from her western foes as would leave her eastern arrangements undisturbed.

By negotiation Germany could not get such an arrangement. Her western foes were all the more determined to fight it out as they perceived the character and ultimate consequences of Germany's eastern settlement. The fate of Serbia, of Rumania, the

still surviving German determination to enslave Belgium and to mutilate France still further,—these were considerations which continued to weigh in the minds of the western allies who began the campaigning season of 1918 with as firm a resolution to go forward to victory as they had when they began the year 1915.

In this situation the German leaders felt the sheer pressure of time. The German people were becoming so weary of the strain of war that the prospect of a new campaign of great length might produce a grave weakening of morale. It was likewise impossible for the Germans to await attack, because the delay would give the Allies fresh American aid and it would disperse the temporary enthusiasm and confidence of the German people, evoked by the eastern settlement.

Thanks to this settlement, and to the improved German prospects due to Russia's collapse, the German people believed that they could still win the war and make France and Britain pay the costs. They were willing to listen to military chiefs who told them that a short, tremendous effort would end the struggle and put the western enemies out as Russia had been put out. But they were no longer so confident as to insure their continued consent to a protracted struggle and another blood bath like Verdun, but even more costly in life.

The German High Command, accordingly, determined upon one tremendous effort; a concentration of every man and gun available upon the western front; a super-Napoleonic campaign for a super-Napoleonic victory. From Russia all the best troops were brought west. From Russia and from Austria vast masses of artillery were transported. All the captures of guns and material from Russia, Rumania and Italy, together with the best of Austrian artillery, were brought over to the western front.

As between the British and the French, the Germans decided to attack the British because they reasoned that a defeat of the French might put France out of the war

without disposing of Britain; while a total defeat of Britain would inevitably compel France to make peace. They argued, also, that it would be easier to defeat the British than the French, because the British were a newly constructed army, while the French was a professional army officered by men who had made the problems of war the study of a lifetime. With the Verdun experience in mind the German elected to assail the British. How far his bitterness for the English influenced his decision one may not say. But in the main the decision grew out of the fact that Britain had become the principal enemy, the one great obstacle to German success, the corner-stone of the alliance against the Central Powers.

## II. ALLIED POLICY

Germany had decided to attack, and to attack in the West, where alone she could obtain a decision of the war. And she had resolved to attack Britain. But why did the Allies wait for the attack, instead of taking the offensive, since they had approximately equal numbers and at least as large a reserve of man-power, of artillery, and of munitions? I find this question asked by many of my readers, several of whom have written to me to ask it directly.

The reason, I think, was this: The Allies had tried the offensive in 1915 in Champagne and Artois without great success and at heavy cost. The Somme in 1916 had been a local victory purchased at very high expense. The Aisne in 1917 had been almost a disaster, so costly had been the early French attacks. And the British efforts in Flanders later were even bloodier and resulted in little more than local gains, useful in improving British positions, but valueless as anything else.

The Allies reasoned, therefore, that an offensive could not yield major results since their offensives had failed to do this; and the single great German effort, that at Verdun, had been the worst failure of the lot. They believed that nearly four years of experience had proven that it was impossible to break through on the western front in such fashion as to dislocate the enemy front on a wide sector and compel a far-reaching withdrawal, if not a real disaster.

They reasoned, further, that, while the numbers of two foes were approximately equal, the great costs of an attack might weaken the assailant dangerously, while,

should they wait, America was beginning to get troops over in some numbers and by 1919 would be able to supply the superiority in numbers which would enable the Allies to make an offensive without running risks patent in 1918. More than all this, the French public, after the Aisne last spring, and also the British people, after the Flanders struggle last autumn, were patently in no mood for bearing the costs of another unsuccessful effort to conquer, which might mean the expenditure of hundreds of thousands of casualties to take local objectives like Passchendaele and Pilkem Ridges, or the Chemin des Dames positions.

It would seem that the Allies renounced the offensive because they felt that it offered them too few chances of supreme success in 1918, while holding out the prospect of real disaster, if there were a costly failure. Disaster might be due either to a subsequent German counter-offensive or to a recurrence of war weariness in their own peoples behind the line, induced by failure, bloodshed, and disappointment.

In all this we are beginning to see that the German was nearer the truth than the Allied Staff in his estimate of the possibilities of the attack in great force and without regard to cost. His reasoning was sounder than that of his foes, although the failures of his foes were to explain much of his subsequent success. For the truth seems unmistakable that the British underestimated the weight of the blow that was to come and made insufficient preparation, and were caught just as the French were caught at Verdun with no adequate provision against the day when their first and second lines of defense might be broken.

But right or wrong, Allied reasoning was that no gains of the Germans could be made which would endanger the safety of the Allied armies; that the German attacks would be parried as the Verdun, Aisne, and Somme offensives had been parried; and that, after a brief rush, the campaign would settle down to another Verdun operation, vastly expensive to the assailant and limited to small and unimportant gains. The Allies forecast the German campaign in terms of their own experience in three years of offensive in the West, and in terms of the German's experience at Verdun. They accepted the defensive and elected to await the coming of America before they passed to the attack.

The decision carried certain perils, which were obvious. The Allied overconfidence

carried others which were not obvious. The German had now the choice of the front on which to attack. He could deal the first blow, which might be fatal and, for a certain period of time, his opponents would be outnumbered at the danger point and might suffer a supreme disaster, before they could get their reserves up. A second peril grew out of the fact that the Allied forces were made up of the troops of two great nations, each of which jealously guarded the command of its own soldiers and, in the present emergency, concentrated its reserves on its own front, expecting the German blow would fall there.

### III. ON MARCH 21

On March 21, therefore, when the great offensive began, the Allies were handicapped: First, by the fact that their strategy had accepted the defensive rôle, which surrendered to the enemy the initiative and the chance to choose his point of attack. Secondly, by the fact that they were, particularly in the case of the British Army, almost absurdly overconfident of their ability to stop the attack at its inception. Third, by the division of command, which left the British alone to meet the storm, and delayed the transfer of French troops to the British front, when the initial disaster came. All of these weaknesses were to exact a high cost in the next few days and bring the Allied peoples the gravest apprehensions since the days of the Marne.

We may not yet speak with any clear authority upon German strategy. Military writers differ as to whether the German planned one mighty blow on a single front, or merely undertook to attack one after another of the British armies from south to north, using his great accumulation of reserves to exploit any local gain which his opening attacks might make. To me this seems the probable idea underlying the German attack. With good communications, and with a relatively restricted area involved, the German could hold the mass of his reserves in such positions as to throw them in north, south or in the center, wherever the storm troops, by the first assaults, opened the way.

In any event the first blow resulted in a tremendous success. It fell upon Gough's Fifth Army, standing from before Cambrai right down to the Oise, holding this rather extended front with fourteen divisions. The

importance of the rôle of Gough's army lay in the fact that it was the connecting link between all the British and all the French armies. If it were broken then there would be a gap between these two allies, and this separation was bound to have the gravest possible consequences. The points of contact of this army were with the Third British Army toward Cambrai and well east of Arras, and with the French at the Oise west of La Fère.

The immediate purpose of the German attack seems to have been to smash through the Fifth Army, either as a whole or at several points opposite the important rearward roads, and by a rapid advance thrust a wedge between French and British armies, and advancing upon Amiens roll the British up and back upon the Channel away from the French and finally intern them in the narrow area north of the Somme. There was in this the original Napoleonic conception of the Waterloo campaign, which was an attempt to interpose between the British and the Prussians and destroy one, while the other was unable to come to its assistance. Napoleon failed because the Prussians arrived on the decisive battlefield in time. The Germans were to fail, too, for the same reason, but not for many days—days filled with peril and anxiety.

Advancing after a brief artillery preparation of unequaled intensity and covered by a fog, the Germans swept the British out of their advanced positions and in the first twenty-four hours broke through the British battle line in at least four places. Forty divisions against fourteen, they simply swamped the British by weight of numbers and by the relentless fury with which they pressed their attacks without regard to losses.

By Friday, March 22, the British Fifth Army had been cut off on the south from the French, on the north from the British Third Army and its center had been broken in two other places. The Germans were advancing with unequaled rapidity along the main road to Péronne and Albert, along the old Roman road which runs straight from the Scheldt north of St. Quentin to Amiens, and along two roads down the Oise valley, one leading to Paris, the other approaching the city of Amiens from the south.

The thing that happened to the Northern Army at Chickamauga, as the result of a mistaken order, now happened to the great Allied group of armies in Northern France.



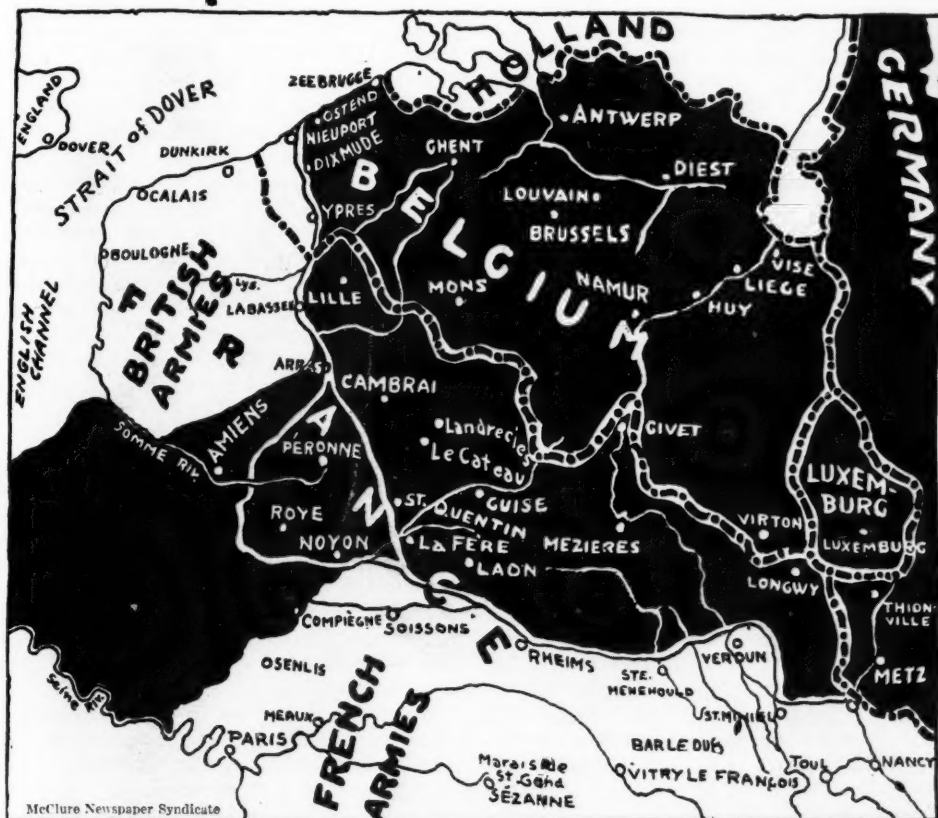
The Germans were sweeping forward between the Oise and the Scarpe, with only a broken army before them and with the very clear purpose to deepen and widen the gap between the British and French armies. The fixed French front ended before La Fère, on the Oise, the fixed British line ended a little south of Arras, on the Cojeul, and between these two ends there was only a confused and beaten army, broken up into isolated groups, fighting gloriously but hopelessly, outnumbered beyond all hope of resistance and rapidly being ground to powder. Friday, Saturday, Sunday and even Monday the Allies were in the presence of the possibility of a disaster of the very greatest proportions.

#### IV. THE SAVING OF AMIENS

Amiens was saved; and with Amiens the continuity of the Allied line and the contact of British and French troops. This

resulted from the rapidity with which French reserves were moved from Champagne, where they had been concentrated against an expected attack upon Rheims, to Picardy and flung in front of the swift-rushing German flood. But two other factors contributed. First, the Germans had broken the British line right in front of the old Somme battleground, ravaged by the terrible struggle of 1916 and laid in utter waste by the German retreat of 1917. Second, toward the end of the critical period heavy rains turned this region into a waste of mud and slowed down the German rush.

In emphasizing the service of the French it is impossible not to pay equal tribute to the gallantry of the British. They fought with supreme courage and absolute self-sacrifice. They died without chance of victory and in the hope of delaying a little the German advance. But this heroism does not and cannot disguise the fact that Gough's army had been utterly beaten; and the recall



WHAT HINDENBURG TRIED TO DO

of the commanding general a few days later was final proof of this fact.

Once the Fifth Army had been driven from its battle-positions the problem was raised whether it could stop the Germans at any new line. A dozen miles west of its first positions, the Somme River makes a great bend and runs from south to north for twenty miles from Ham to Péronne, in a deep-cut, marshy valley dominated by high western banks. Here was an ideal defensive position. Here everyone expected the British to stand. But, it would seem that there had been no prepared positions here; that the British had repeated the error of the French at Verdun and looked only to advance, not to the possibility of retreat.

In any event the Germans forced the passage of the Somme on the Sunday following the Thursday attack. They took Péronne, Ham and Nesle, and to the north they reoccupied Bapaume, while to the south they rolled on toward Noyon, Roye and Chaules, the advance points of their old front in the days before the British offensive at the Somme two years ago. By Monday they had overrun all the old battlefield of the Somme. At the north they had taken Albert, always in Allied hands since the early days of September, 1914. They had passed Roye and were reaching out for Amiens by the Roman road and by the Roye road. They were thrusting down the Oise valley along the road to Paris and toward Montdidier, which they presently took, along the road to the Seine south of Beauvais.

March 26 was the decisive day, just as February 26 was the decisive day at Verdun in 1916; and in both cases the original attack came on the 21st. On this day the French arrived in force not only along the southern front from the Oise just south of Noyon westward below Lassigny to the Avre above Montdidier, but also west of the Avre they joined hands with the British along the plateau above the Avre and at the little town of Moreuil on the Avre.

On this day, then, the gap was closed. The British and French armies were again in touch. The chance of rolling the British back north of the Somme and away from the French, of pushing the French back behind the Seine and the Oise, disappeared. Almost without warning the battle lines became stationary, just as they did on the Douaumont Plateau at Verdun, after the attack of the Twentieth Army corps under Balfourier. Six days of acute anxiety grow-

ing out of the realization of an ever-impending disaster, of another Waterloo or a colossal Sedan, came to an end. It had been a period exactly recalling the worst days before the Marne.

The German did not immediately accept his check. He continued to drive forward in the center between the Avre and the Ancre for several days. But his gains were slight, and he was still nearly a dozen miles from Amiens in an ever-narrowing salient between the Avre and the Ancre. His heavy guns had not arrived, and the cost to him of advancing under heavy artillery fire, supported only by field guns, was prohibitive. By April 1 there is a marked lull in the fighting and both sides begin to dig in. The German has recovered almost all the old battlefield of the Somme, and south of the Somme he has driven west of this area for something like ten miles from the vicinity of Bray to Montdidier, by way of Montreuil. He is in sight of Amiens, but firmly held outside the old capital of Picardy.

## V. THE SECOND BATTLE OF THE SOMME

Feeling himself checked, the German suddenly transferred his attack to the North. At the outset he had assailed the southern flank of Byng's Third Army and driven it back from Monchy-le-Preux and other high ground won in the Battle of Arras, a year before. But his gains had been unimportant, although the southern flank of the Third Army was compelled to swing backward to keep in line with the remnants of the Fifth Army and try to keep in contact with it.

Now, in the first week in April the German suddenly delivered a tremendous blow at the Arras position, advancing astride the Scarpe and under the shadow of Vimy Ridge. If he could defeat this Third Army—if he could dislocate its front, which had become the pivot of the British, the fixed point on which hung all the battle line to the south, the hinge of the British battle line—the check at Amiens would be abolished, the whole British line would be thrown off its feet and a gap between the British and the French might open again.

This attack was an effort to restore the opportunity of a supreme victory, at least temporarily postponed by the check before Amiens. It had enormous possibilities, but

it never made the smallest progress. It was checked before the British battle positions, and it was checked with such promptness and with such heavy losses that the Germans did not engage all the reserves collected for the attempt. One day sufficed to establish the solidity of the Third Army positions.

Blocked thus at the North, the German now renewed his attacks to the South. He was now caught in a salient, a blunt-nosed wedge, with the point facing Amiens and the sides supplied by the Avre and Ancre streams, little more than large brooks, without value as military obstacles, but bounded on the western or Allied side by high ground, from which the Allied guns poured in a terrific cross-fire upon the Germans in the salient and facing Amiens. Unless the Germans could break the sides of this wedge they would presently be in a difficult position and might have to retire or risk disaster.

Accordingly toward the end of the first week in April and after the Arras blow had failed, Hindenburg began to throw great forces against the sides of the salient—against the British to the North along the Ancre above and below Albert, and against the French along the Avre and the plateau between the Avre and the Noye below Montdidier. The assault upon this plateau had the additional importance that on its western side, it looked down into the little valley of the Noye, through which runs the Paris-Amiens-Boulogne railway, the main route between London and Paris. To cut this line would be an important but not a decisive achievement.

Once more, as before Arras, the Germans were checked. Too much time had been allowed his enemy to settle down in new positions, which were now consolidated and backed by the concentration of Allied guns, while the German thrust was still weakened by the difficulties of transport of guns, munitions and men across the muddy desert of the Somme battlefield. For the moment the German was condemned to count his prisoners, his guns, his booty. His immediate success was over. He had to choose between following the old Verdun parallel and continuing his attack, with small prospect of great success, or of choosing a new point of attack. He chose the latter course and in a few days broke out in a new quarter.

Such briefly was the Second Battle of the Somme. It began by the piercing of the front of the British Fifth Army in four places, and in the dislocation first of the

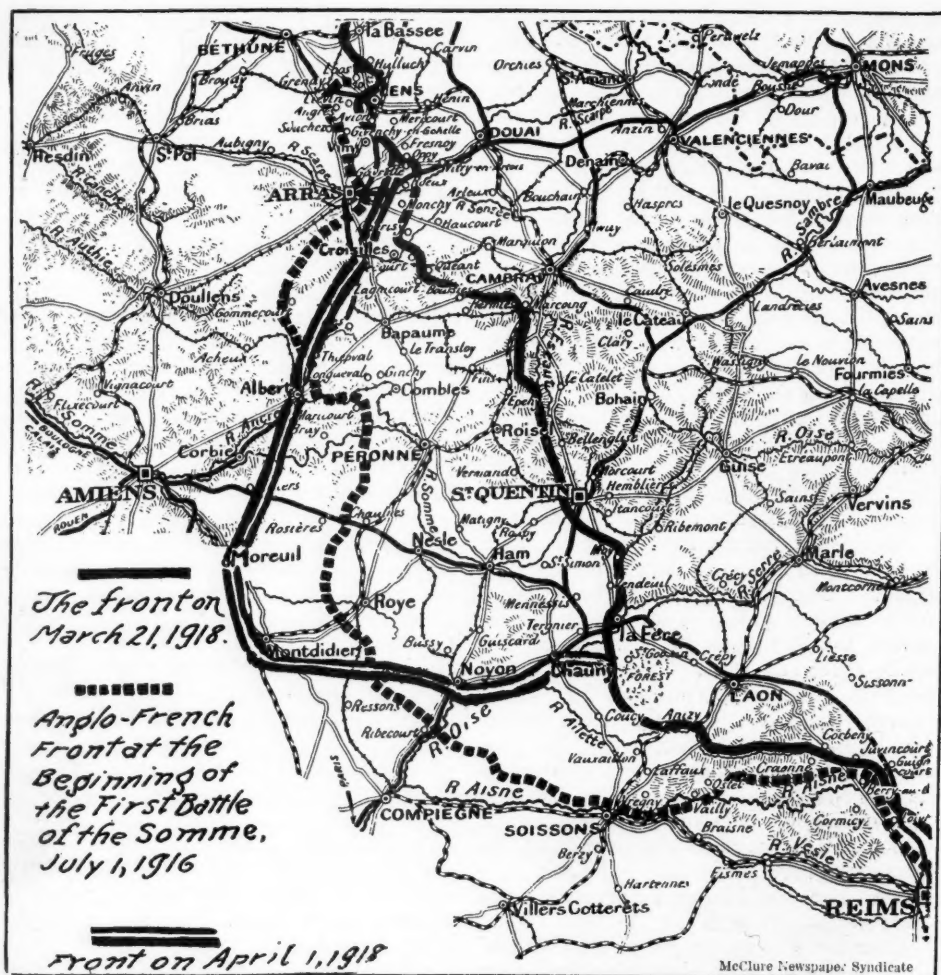
front of this army and then of all the Allied forces between the Scarpe and the Oise. The value of the Fifth Army as a link between British and French forces was promptly abolished. A major disaster faced the Allies for almost a week; and, at the end, the supreme defeat was escaped by a narrow margin after a retreat of thirty-five miles and the surrender of most of the ground won by the campaign of 1916 and of other ground beside.

The German estimated his prisoners at 90,000 and his captured guns at above 1300. The British challenge these figures, but they do not seem preposterous. In any event the British must have lost between 50,000 and 75,000 prisoners—mainly their wounded, be it understood—and a thousand guns. Here is a real measure of defeat, unexampled in British military history. As for German losses, they were enormous; but advancing they saved their wounded, many of whom will reappear on the front, while the British wounded, who were captured, are a permanent loss. A loss of 250,000 for the Germans and perhaps 200,000 for the British and French, a loss chiefly British, of course, would seem a fair estimate of the cost of the Second Somme in the first three weeks.

## VI. FOCH COMES

The disaster to the Fifth British Army and the consequent peril to the whole Allied fortunes in France and Belgium led to a decision which should have been made far earlier. Had it been made before the crisis of the Second Somme, it might have saved much temporary peril. This was the decision to name a Commander-in-Chief. The Allied armies had long suffered with respect of their operations by the independence of British, Italian and French High Commands. The British Government had many months before, on the morrow of the Italian disaster, urged such a coördination of Allied effort.

But the influence of the British Army with the British public and with Parliament prevented this eminently necessary step. Lloyd George was forced to go back on words spoken both in Paris and in Italy. For the moment the British soldier defeated the British statesman. But the subsequent failures of the British Staff, in the Battle of Cambrai, in the Flanders Campaign, where sterile local gains were the only reward for



huge sacrifices in man-power, and finally in the newest offensive, destroyed the case of the British Staff. The people and the Parliament of Britain recognized the common-sense of the Prime Minister's conviction.

In the achievement of this long-sought goal America played an influential and an honorable part. The moment the storm broke, General Pershing offered our slender forces in France to the Allies without condition. He and his Government agreed that our men should be broken up into small units and put under French and British commanders, used as a French and British reserve, without regard to American pride in a separate organization, without regard to the jealousies and selfishness which nations and armies feel in such cases.

To her Allies the United States said, "We have so many men in France; take them and use them as you will, as a unit at the front, as reserves. We have only this to give, but we give it without condition." It was one of the wisest and best things Mr. Wilson has done; for he was primarily responsible for the offer. It gave the Allies some 200,000 men for use at a critical hour, thus releasing other troops for the Somme front; and it silenced effectually further British military opposition to a single command. In the debate we have always stood with the French. Now, by surrendering all our own individuality, we gave final force to the general argument for the surrender of British pride.

Without further delay Foch was named.



That the decision would be for Foch was never in doubt. No man in the Allied camp possessed anything like the claims of the victor of La Fère Champénoise, the man who had saved Nancy, who had blocked the German drive for the Channel ports, who had commanded the French in their first offensive in the spring of 1915 in Artois and directed the later French operations at the Somme in the following year, the man whom the Allies had sent to Italy after the Isonzo disaster last year. Every claim which achievement, experience and esteem in all allied countries gave, could be made for General Foch; and his appointment was hailed in America and in Italy, quite as much as in France. In Britain, the public and the press, having recognized the necessity and concurred in the decision of the government, gave instant and unconditional support to the new commander-in-chief.

And with Foch came confidence. Within a few hours he gave the anxious Allied world the assurance that Amiens would not fall. His serenity and his calmness produced an instant effect. There was a feeling that the great man had arrived with the supreme crisis, and that Hindenburg was to find his match in Foch, as Moltke had found his master in Joffre. Henceforth the battle-front of the Allies from Venetia to Flanders became unified under a single commander; and the combined reserves of all the western allies were available for the immediate use of a commander-in-chief who was able to see the whole situation and not, as had seemingly been the case of both Haig and Petain, conceive that a limited sector was all-important.

Yet even the terrible crisis could not entirely hide the greatness of the power that was now entrusted in the hands of one man. Napoleon had never commanded an army comparable with that of France alone at the present hour. Yet the French army was hardly more than a third of the army which Foch now ruled, since the command of the Italian army was, beyond doubt, included in the pooling of forces. French, British, Italian, American, Belgian, Portuguese, Australian, Canadian forces with contingents from Asia and Africa, were included in this mighty host. To its General it looked alike for deliverance from immediate peril and for ultimate victory. Despite, however, momentary relief at the Somme and satisfaction everywhere at the appointment of Foch, the Allied crisis was far from over; a new and equally terrible test was close at hand.

## VII. THE BATTLE OF ARMENTIÈRES

The first week of April had seen the fighting in Picardy flicker out. The Germans were faced by the old Verdun dilemma. Any further effort on this front meant a long, slow pounding with great losses and little immediate profit, at least until guns and munitions could be brought up and communications created in the desert. In this situation the German turned north, perhaps in accordance with his prearranged plans, conceivably as the result of his check and following a strategy improved after the Somme fight had taken its later course.

In any event on April 9 he suddenly struck a heavy blow against General Horne's British Army, which held the Armentières district, the sector between Ypres on the north and Arras on the south. His purpose in this attack was instantly plain. He sought to drive a wedge between the British troops in France and the British and Belgian forces in Belgium and advancing astride the Lys River, follow the historic roadway from the Plain of Flanders to the Channel at Calais.

In his larger conception the German dreamed of breaking through between the Arras and Ypres armies, isolating the Ypres force, together with the Belgians, rolling both in upon Dunkirk, and accomplishing on the North in a relatively smaller way what he had sought in the South. He hoped to crush Horne's Army as he had smashed Gough's. He hoped to drive a wedge to the Channel like that he had almost driven through Amiens. His victory, if achieved, would automatically turn the British out of Arras and the strong positions about that town. It would compel the Arras Army to make a rapid and probably disorderly retreat south upon the French and the British Army would thus be divided, one half caught in a Super-Sedan at the North, the other thrust in rout back upon the French. The Kaiser would at least reach the Channel and turn his super-gun upon the British coast towns, upon Dover.

The conception was unmistakably grandiose, but it had elements of soundness which were not disputed in subsequent days, when the German advance crossed the Lys and approached Hazebrouck. It was a conception which resembled that of the March venture, which was, in fact, only one more of the familiar products of Prussian strategy,

which counts Sedan and Metz among its most characteristic achievements.

The front upon which the German made his attack was low and marshy, a twenty-mile stretch between the high ground facing La Bassée to the south and the ridges dominating Ypres to the north. It had been the scene of desperate fighting during the First Battle of Ypres, in October, 1914, Neuve Chapelle, where Sir John French made his abortive offensive in February, 1915, was almost on the front line of the British. Festubert, the scene of an even more ghastly offensive, was also on his pathway. As he advanced the German would push into an expanse of muddy plain, surrounded in a semi-circle by hills and, toward Hazebrouck, barred by the large and boggy Forest of Nieppe.

The German's immediate objectives were three: (1) Béthune, to the south, at the foot of the hills back of Arras, an industrial town of some importance and the last considerable coal town left to the French; (2) Bailleul, to the north, at the foot of the Ypres hills and on one of the main roads north to Ypres, and finally (3) Hazebrouck, sixteen miles due west, a railroad junction and the key to Ypres. Hazebrouck was his goal for the first phase of his offensive. If he got Béthune and the high ground east of it, the Arras salient would be imperiled. If he got Bailleul, the Ypres salient would be dangerous to hold. If he got Hazebrouck, the Ypres salient would have to be surrendered; the British would be compelled to retire out of Belgium and the whole Allied line swing back to the Channel at Dunkirk. More than this, Hazebrouck was at least a third of the way to Calais itself.

If the German got Béthune, Bailleul, and Hazebrouck in the first rush—as he had taken Péronne, Ham, and Bapaume at the Somme—towns as far from his earlier starting place, a new British disaster would inevitably ensue. Horne's Army would be smashed, and the Arras and Ypres armies put in grave peril. His main purpose was still to smash British military power; and geographical objectives were only incidental. But he had again selected these geographical objectives with a clear eye to their bearing upon his main purpose. When he started on his attack on April 9, he was about as far from Calais as he had been from Amiens on March 21. A repetition of the Amiens sweep might get him Calais, and would certainly bring the town within range of his

heavy guns and thus render it useless for British transport purposes, and Calais was one of the chief British bases in France.

### VIII. THE ASSAULT

The assault in the opening phase of the Battle of Armentières differed materially from the assault at the Somme. There the German had attacked on a fifty-mile front, but now he began operations by a local thrust at the portion of Horne's army lying along the Lys in the low ground near Laventie. Here he struck a Portuguese division, crumpled it up, and drove a wedge hardly more than two miles wide right through the British lines. Through this gap more troops poured and began to spread out. In the first day the crossings of the Lys and the Lawe were both stormed and the Germans reached the considerable town of Estaires on the main road to Hazebrouck.

As this advance widened its front it began to reach at the rear of Armentières; and the next day the Germans made a terrific drive on a narrow front north of Armentières and at the foot of the famous Messines Ridge south of Ypres. At this point they carried the village and forest known to the "Tommy" as "Plugstreet." Armentières was thus encircled and the position of the British in it was desperate. In point of fact several thousand were presently captured after a gallant resistance.

The German was thus widening his operative front. By April 11 he was making desperate efforts south of the Lys and east of Béthune against Givenchy and Festubert, facing La Bassée. Both of these towns were taken and lost many times in the first days of the struggle.

But despite all his efforts the German could not shake the British to the north or to the south of the plain on the high ground vital to the defense of Arras and Ypres. On the other hand, his advance on the plain continued rapid and by April 13 he had progressed more than eleven miles toward Hazebrouck, which was less than five miles from his front lines. Merville and other considerable industrial towns were in his hands and he was within a mile both of Béthune and Bailleul.

Sunday, April 14, was in a sense a critical day. If the German could break down either side of the deep and narrow salient into which he had thrust, there was still the possibility for him of a major success, for

neither French nor British reserves had arrived. Already, two days before, Sir Douglas Haig had made a stirring appeal to his troops to die where they stood, "fighting with their backs to the wall," and nowhere was there any effort to minimize the extent of the danger.

On the Sunday, however, the British situation improved. The German was checked on all three sides of the salient. He was thrown back to the north. It seemed as if what had occurred to the south would now take place in the north, and that the Germans would be halted before Hazebrouck as they had been checked before Amiens, without achieving any larger strategic end. But already, the extent of German advance had placed the troops in the Ypres salient in a dangerous position and steps were being taken to prepare for a shortening of the line in Belgium.

The next day the necessity for such a step was obvious, for the Germans, returning to the charge, broke through the northern side of the salient, took Bailleul and some ground about it—including Meteran still further along the road to Hazebrouck—and the next day stormed the famous Messines Ridge and took the village and hill of "White Sheet." This was a fatal stroke, so far as the Ypres position was concerned, for the Messines Ridge looked down upon the one railroad and the single highway by which all reinforcements, munitions and supplies reached the Ypres salient.

For three years the Germans had sat upon this ridge and shelled the British in the Ypres salient. They had not been strong enough to undertake an offensive, and so the British had held on; but always with the realization that if the Germans attacked from Messines, the whole Ypres salient would have to be evacuated. In June, 1917, General Plumer had stormed this ridge as the first step in the campaign to drive the Germans from the Belgian coast. This attack had been the most brilliant single feat of the British Army in the war.

Now the conditions were reversed; and the Germans, as a step in their dash for Calais, had retaken the ridge and the British were in the low ground. Where they stood on the ridge the Germans were but three miles from the vital communications of the British, while the British far east of Ypres from Langemarck to Passchendaele were eight miles from the threatened point. If the Germans could get forward these three

miles before the British could get out of the Ypres salient, a new Sedan would result.

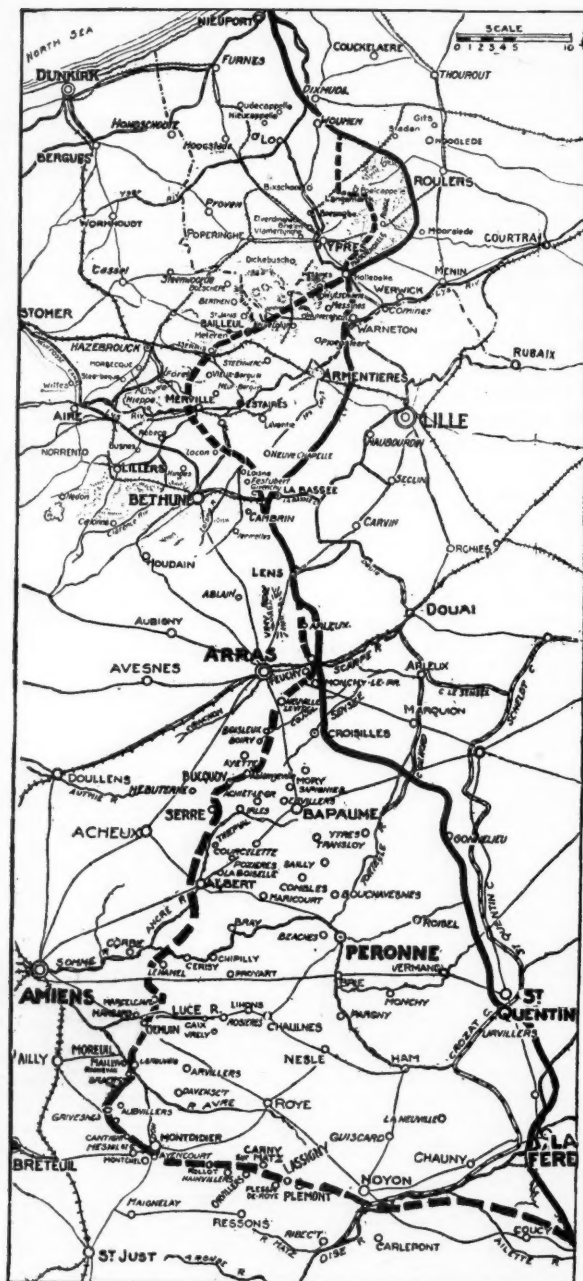
### IX. PASSCHENDAELE

There was nothing for it, then, but to retreat; and by Wednesday the British were back on a narrow front before Ypres from Bixchoote through Pilkem to the famous ground about Zonnebeke. Almost but not quite all of the ground which had cost a half a million casualties to take less than a year before, was thus surrendered without a shot. Nor was this all. It was plainly recognized that this might prove but the first step in a withdrawal which would take the British out of Ypres altogether and back on the line near Poperinghe. Such a retirement was probable if Messines and "White Sheet" could not be retaken. It was certain, if the Germans should take Kemmel Hill, west of the Messines hinge and much higher. Kemmel was the key of the Ypres salient.

Accordingly the British undertook on Wednesday, April 17, still another vigorous counter-offensive against Messines, and took Wytschaete, but only to lose it. The Germans could not be shaken from their prize on this day or on the next. As it now stood the Ypres salient had been restored to approximately its lines at the close of the first struggle in October and November, 1914.

But, on the other hand, the British retirement had much reduced, if it had not totally abolished, the perils incident to the holding of a far-flung salient whose lines of communication and single avenue of retreat was within striking distance of the enemy. Marshal Bazaine had stayed in Metz too long in 1870, and had found the Verdun road closed when at last he tried to get out. The British held the corresponding Poperinghe road solidly, and they had moved their main force back out of the danger zone.

The surrender of this famous ground, the scene of so much sacrifice, and the graveyard of so much of the best of British manhood, was a terrible blow to British pride. It was a blow that had to be borne in the face of the possibility of a further surrender of Ypres itself, and for Britain, what Verdun represented for France. But the real consequences on the military side were relatively slight. Ypres was only a sector in the line from Belgium to Switzerland; and if the line held, it did not matter whether it ran before or behind Ypres. The values of the 1918 campaign were far different



THE BATTLE LINE ON APRIL 20

(The new front is shown by a broken line, the old front by solid black. The lower half of the map is the scene of the first phase of the great battle, the German effort to reach Amiens, March 21-29. Further north is the ground lost in the second phase, which began on April 9, resulting in withdrawal from Armentières and the ridges of Messines and Passchendaele, in the Ypres salient)

from those of 1914, and the British retirement, which would have been fatal in 1914, would have no major consequences, provided there were no concomitant disaster, no broken line.

Thursday, April 18, the British official reports for the first time announced that the British line had been maintained everywhere and at the same time signalled the arrival of the French about Bailleul. Once more it seemed that a German thrust had been parried, this time not far from its inception. The troops attacked had held until the reserves could arrive, and Calais and the roads to the Channel seemed blocked against the Kaiser, as it had been blocked nearly four years before.

Yet the northern offensive was not over; and new convulsions and new crises were still to be expected. Nor was it unlikely that a third German blow, either at the Somme or in Belgium, would still further strain Allied resources and Allied man-power. Since the opening of the attack the Germans had used 126 divisions, 98 at the Somme and 28 at Armentières. Of these 60 had been put in during the first three days at the Somme, 82 during the first ten days, and the figure of 98 had been reached just before the southern battle closed. Of the 128, 79 had been used against the British, 24 against the French, who had come to the British aid in the south, and 23 had been used against both British and French units. In effect, then, the British had faced not less than 90 divisions, the French 36. And it had been against the British that the real blow had been levelled; for in the main the French had been far less heavily engaged.

In the four weeks, then, the British had borne the weight of something like 1,250,000 with a force manifestly inferior in numbers. It might be reckoned at 70 British divisions, which at



their probable strength did not exceed a million. Contrast this with the seventeen divisions thrown against the French in the first days of Verdun, and the weight of the blow can be appreciated. The British had been, too, heavily outgunned; and the German superiority in artillery had perhaps contributed to the great successes which had been won in the opening phases of the two assaults.

And after four weeks the British army was still fighting back. Two of the armies had been beaten. The fifth had been practically routed. Horne's army had been beaten back but never broken. But despite the reverses, the line still held and the effort to isolate the British and destroy their military establishment had so far been defeated.

In all human history there has never been such a blow, or such a month of carnage. "Germany is on the march," said one Prussian officer, recording in his diary his impressions of the great adventure. And Germany on the march had encountered Britain at bay, as Germany had encountered France at the Marne. The result was a struggle which for the future can hardly have lesser interest than the Marne—a struggle in which more men were engaged, more men killed, wounded and captured and more artillery

used than ever before. And this battle after four weeks had not ended, and gave no visible sign of coming to an end.

On April 19, a date of utmost significance to the American troops, now beginning to play a modest part in the struggle, the Germans had not divided the British from the French, they had not opened a road to the Channel or isolated the British and Belgian troops in Belgium from the British and French in France and thus produced a Super-Sedan. But, on the other hand, such checks as they had met with were still far from seeming complete and the greatest battle in the world, although still without decisive gains for Germany still saw the "good German sword" seeking its "victorious peace." The Allies were not beaten; they seemed in stronger position than at the outset and with reserves still unengaged—in fact, the Italian Prime Minister on this day announced that Italian divisions were on the way to France. But the ultimate outcome of the battle was as yet unrevealed to the world, who followed this struggle with an intensity which cannot be forgotten, and recalled the worst days of the Marne campaign; and it was the recollection of the Marne time, which in the black hours held out the brightest hopes for the future.



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THE MAIN STREET IN ARMENTIÈRES WHICH SHOWS THE GREAT DESTRUCTION IN THE TOWN CAUSED BY THE GERMAN BOMBARDMENT

# CAN THE GERMANS BOMB NEW YORK FROM THE AIR?

BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFERT AND CARL DIENSTBACH

[This article is not a romantic essay in pseudo-science, but the solid contribution of two men who have real reputations to sustain among mechanical engineers and scientists. Mr. Kaempfert is editor of *Popular Science Monthly*, and is widely known as a well-informed and exact writer on scientific subjects. Mr. Dienstbach was one of the first American students of modern aviation, and has made a notably careful study of each advance in the conquest of the air, wherever achieved.—THE EDITOR.]

PICTURE to yourself an attack from the air on an Atlantic seaport—New York leaps to the mind—and at once you conjure up a fleet of slim, black super-Zeppelins raining death from a height of ten thousand feet. In the next moment you remember the vastness of the Atlantic Ocean, which has not yet been traversed by aircraft. Your momentary fears are dispelled. The foremost aeronautic engineers of Germany reinforce your conclusions. Did they not discuss, last summer, the possibility of a Zeppelin's voyaging across the ocean, after the war, and did they not decide that if all useless cargo were to give place to fuel, New York might be reached, but only if no severe storm were encountered? Evidently the feat is impossible, and that from the German standpoint. Transform the exploit into a daring military adventure involving more than the ordinary aeronautic risks, and the conviction becomes unshakable that New York is safe from Zeppelins. If the Germans themselves conclude that barely enough fuel can be carried for one crossing, how can the vessel ever return? Besides, bombs must be transported. Even for an attack on London, gasoline is sacrificed for high explosives. A bombless Zeppelin setting out from a German base and hovering over New York is a military absurdity.

## ESTABLISHING A BASE OF SUPPLIES

But the case of the Zeppelin is not to be so easily dismissed. A secret base of supplies must be established. Where? Clearly, not on the Atlantic seaboard. Perhaps in the ocean itself? Suppose the airship were to set out with a full equipment of bombs, and suppose that it were to meet in mid-ocean a capacious, cargo-carrying "mother" submarine of the *Deutschland* species—might it not

be possible to refill exhausted reservoirs? New supplies can be easily and quickly shipped. All Zeppelins have electric winches, by means of which tanks can be lowered and raised in less time than a safe is hoisted from the sidewalk to the fifth story of a New York building.

It will not be necessary to provide tanks or steel bottles for replenishing the gas supply of the huge dirigible, for the simple reason that the leakage of gas would not be very great. Zeppelins remain in their sheds for a month and more, and lose so little gas that the pressure within their envelopes is easily brought to standard requirements by an occasional brief connection with the gas tanks. Moreover, it must never be forgotten that a Zeppelin flies like an airplane when it is driven at high speed. In other words, the air pressure beneath its huge bulk has a tremendous lifting effect, so much so that a Zeppelin can rise at a far steeper angle than an ascending airplane can assume. This very aerodynamic lift, to use a technical phrase, enables the navigator to compensate for such slight leakage as may occur at great heights.

But a rendezvous is a necessary prerequisite, and appointments in mid-ocean cannot be kept punctiliously. A delay would involve the risk of being discovered and thwarted in waters almost constantly plowed by merchantmen and convoying warships. A meeting might be effected without much loss of time if a Zeppelin could heave to in a given latitude and longitude as easily as a submarine. Over Europe a Zeppelin's commander always knows exactly where he is, because he is in periodic communication with two widely separated German radio stations. In mid-Atlantic only the signals sent out by Nauen could

reach him. If there were at least one German radio station in Southern Europe as powerful as that of Nauen, the task of picking up a submarine in mid-ocean would be simplified; for it would involve merely the application of those principles of radio trigonometry with which every Zeppelin commander is thoroughly familiar. He is thrown back on the traditional navigator's instruments. To be sure, the sextant can be manipulated on a Zeppelin as easily as on a steamer, and more frequently; but before two astronomical observations can be advantageously utilized, the giant bubble of gas may drift so far that the submarine may be missed time and time again. These repeated efforts to effect a meeting must be paid for in fuel.

The conclusion is forced upon us that even the chance of reaching New York in stages is slim. When the difficulties of re-provisioning the airship in mid-ocean are pointed out, it becomes apparent that even with the assistance of a *Deutschland*, a Zeppelin could hardly hope to bomb New York.

#### THE LESSER ANTILLES—A POSSIBLE METHOD OF APPROACH

We have assumed, thus far, that a northerly parallel of latitude would be followed and that for lack of a base on the North American shore, the attempt of a Zeppelin to reach New York with a full load of bombs is not likely to succeed. What if the Atlantic were to be crossed on a southerly course? Are the chances of establishing a refueling station in the South any better? Assume that the craft starts out from Pola, on the Adriatic. It drops to an isolated spot on the barren coast of Morocco and refills its tanks—a performance quite possible along that sparsely inhabited stretch of land. Rising once more and speeding toward the Atlantic, which way would the commander lay his course? Straight for the Lesser Antilles, like a buccaneer of the eighteenth century. Among the hundreds of coves that indent the islands and that sheltered the looters of the Spanish Main in their time, a haven could be found where a submarine might lurk with explosives and gasoline. It is even conceivable that a base might be established in Mexico. The coast of that country is not too well patrolled, and among a people not yet brought under complete subjection by the present government, friends enough could be found to further a German enterprise.

A nation which has not hesitated to build and equip a submarine for the purpose of running the British blockade and trading coal-tar products with the United States for nickel and rubber, a nation which has even built a gun with a range of seventy-five miles for the sole purpose of displaying its technical supremacy in the manufacture of military weapons, might deem it worth while to convert this possibility into a sensational reality. By voyaging at a well-chosen level the trade winds could be utilized to reduce the fuel consumption. An attack on the United States by a Zeppelin operated from a West Indian base must of necessity be a desperate maneuver; but futile as it must be from a military standpoint, it is nevertheless feasible.

What then? What would be the range of a craft, freighted to the utmost with those terrible bombs that have been dropped on Antwerp, Bucharest, Paris, and London? Washington, the very brain of the country in this critical time, might sustain some injury. Even New York might learn what it means to have bombs dropped from the sky into its densely packed streets or on its congested wharves, if the Zeppelin's commander were to burn his last drop of fuel and then descend and fire a flaming bullet into the inflammable gas with which his envelope is inflated.

#### BAD WEATHER—THE AIRCRAFT'S FOE

Not more than one attack could be made even on the city most accessible from the Caribbean Sea or the Gulf of Mexico. A super-Zeppelin of the highly developed type that has become familiar to the Allies through the fortunate capture of the L-49 last year, must sooner or later return to its harbor or shed, a huge, especially built structure with a complicated equipment for mooring the great hull on flat cars or boats and guiding it to shelter. A quick return must be made to Europe after a single raid. Now the voyage from Pola, the attack on Washington, the return to the Antilles for fresh fuel, and the home voyage would require at least ten days. The safety and success of the enterprise, therefore, depend entirely on the weather. Zeppelins have been wrecked time and time again by sudden and terrific winds. The guiding minds of so bold and undertaking must therefore calculate the meteorological chances for and against success. Under no circumstances must God fail the Kaiser. Atmospheri-

cally considered, the United States from the Gulf of Mexico to Maine is a region of gentle winds in summer—a startling meteorological contrast to the rain and wind that prevail during a German summer. But we, too, have our sudden storms. Is it worth while to run all the meteorological risks for the sake of driving the people of an American city to their cellars? Only the German General Staff can answer. A gambler's chance would have to be taken; but even gamblers occasionally succeed, especially when they are bold.

#### THE CASE OF THE GIANT SEAPLANE

Less favorable, if anything, than the case of the Zeppelin, is that of the trans-Atlantic seaplane. Although the exploit of a Handley-Page machine in flying from England to Constantinople in order to bomb the *Goeben* will live as one of the most brilliant exploits of the war, the truth is that a huge flying machine has not the radius of a Zeppelin. The longest flights without stop have thus far been made by lone pilots in rather small machines. The longer radius of large planes is deceptive. It is attained by reducing the number of the crew. Proportionately, the four men who man a German Gotha bombing plane weigh less than the single man who pilots a small long-distance flying machine; but even if these four men were reduced to one, not very much more fuel could be carried, relatively to the fuel required by a mammoth plane. Compared with the giant Zeppelin, the large plane has chiefly speed in its favor—speed which is a kind of insurance that favorable winds will continue as long as the voyage. It was only after “re-coaling” as it were, only after alighting several times, that the Handley-Page was able to reach Constantinople and to carry a great load of spare parts and tools. The airplane has the limitations of a locomotive; the Zeppelin has some of the advantages of a steamer. A locomotive must be re-fueled more frequently than a ship; so must an airplane.

It must be admitted that the Atlantic could undoubtedly be crossed at the present time by the giant Handley-Page machines of England, the huge Capronis of Italy, and the mammoth Gothas of Germany—but only if bombs are left behind.

If a Zeppelin cannot hope to cross the Atlantic with both an adequate supply of fuel and of bombs, if a Zeppelin cannot be sure of meeting a “mother” submarine in mid-

ocean, the possibility of bombing New York with a “Gotha” of the largest size that Germany has thus far built seems positively fantastic.

It is even harder for a seaplane than for a Zeppelin to meet a “mother” submarine in mid-ocean. Unlike the dirigible, the plane would be compelled to descend to the surface in order to re-provision itself. The water must be smooth. In a rough sea the task of taking on fresh fuel becomes difficult, if not impossible; the preliminary run without which an airplane cannot be launched into the atmosphere cannot be made. Even if the weather be fair but the sea choppy, the plane must stay aloft and perhaps exhaust what little fuel may still remain in the tanks. Contrary winds would hamper the craft as much as they would a Zeppelin, although her greater speed would enable her to stem them more readily. Still, delay would be more fatal because of the seaplane's more limited fuel supply. The giant dirigible can afford to lose time; it actually saves fuel by reducing speed. A seaplane's effective radius depends entirely on speed; it cannot lose a minute on a transatlantic voyage; it can save no fuel by slowing down. The trade winds, comparatively gentle as they are, would add but little to the seaplane's speed, but appreciably to the Zeppelin's radius.

Since the limitations of the giant transatlantic seaplane are more pronounced than those of the Zeppelin, since a base must be found for the seaplane as well as the Zeppelin, the Lesser Antilles again suggest themselves as the site of a secret supply station. From his secret haven he vaults into the air, and heads either for New Orleans, Galveston, Jacksonville, or some other Southern port, or perhaps for the Panama Canal.

On the whole, the seaplane is most imperilled while flying over the ocean; the Zeppelin after it has arrived at its Southern base. Both seaplane and Zeppelin must reckon with the weather. There is at least one chance in ten that either type of vessel could operate from the Lesser Antilles, and one chance in fifty that it would be able to return home in safety.

#### WOULD A SEAPLANE COÖPERATING WITH A “MOTHER” SUBMARINE SUCCEED?

A prudent General Staff will decide that the odds are against the use of transatlantic aircraft. What if submarines alone were to be relied upon? What if a *Deutschland* were to transport a dismantled sea-



plane in its hold, assemble it on its deck when near these shores and launch it for an attack? The Germans build their huge Friedrichshafen sea planes in sections so that they may be readily transported to the coast of the North Sea. At their destination the planes are assembled and then sent forth to raid English towns. But it takes time to assemble even a Friedrichshafen seaplane—many hours in fact. It is doubtful, too, if the sections could be fastened together on the low, narrow deck of a submarine over which waves break at frequent intervals. On the other hand it would not be a severe test of ingenuity to design a platform which could be quickly erected on the deck, nor a seaplane which could be assembled more readily than the Friedrichshafen type. Much, again, depends on the weather. But fifty or a hundred miles off the Atlantic coast, one day is often as calm as another. It is conceivable that a single submarine might assemble and launch as many planes as it could carry; the number would depend entirely on the capacity of the vessel. If there is any truth in the report published early in April that the Germans are building submarines of five thousand tons displacement—vessels which can actually engage a small cruiser or destroyer on equal terms—the chief technical difficulty of assembling the craft vanishes. Such a submarine might carry a whole seaplane on its deck and the parts of three more below.

Far more practicable than the dispatching of Zeppelins or seaplanes to a Southern base, is this plan of employing the submarine. When it is considered that the *Deutschland* on her two voyages to this country was not even sighted, it is not too much to suppose that the tedious process of assembling a plane may be carried out without necessarily involving discovery. The hull of a submarine lies low; it is scarcely visible five miles away.

If Boston, New York, Washington, Baltimore, or Norfolk are bombed by craft thus transported—and the possibility is incontestable—it must be at the sacrifice of the seaplanes employed. If a bombing seaplane were to succeed in picking up its submarine mother, the process of dismembering the craft would be difficult and perilous. Armed patrol boats, destroyers, all the fastest vessels that could be summoned for hundreds of miles by wireless, would scour the coast for the aerial raider. Only by a miracle

would he escape. And yet, although his return to the submarine is a possibility too remote for serious consideration, although a bombing pilot's attack would probably end in capture or death, who can deny that New York may be thus bombarded? Lives and machines are not reckoned in waging war. Because an enterprise is suicidal, it is not impossible.

#### THE "WOLF'S" SEAPLANE MIGHT HAVE BOMBED US.

If we can imagine New York bombed by a seaplane transported within striking distance of our Atlantic cities by a submarine, is it asking too much to imagine an ordinary steamer, a sea raider perhaps serving as a thoroughly practical "mother" ship? At once the reply leaps to the tongue: The blockade of the North Sea must be run, and the certainty of capture by swift British or American warships must be faced. To this there is one crushing rejoinder. Only a few weeks ago the last of the German sea raiders, aptly termed the *Wolf*, returned safely to her home port after wreaking havoc on the high seas. She is one of several German steamers which have successfully eluded the hundreds of vessels that swarm in the waters of Northern Europe and the Northern Atlantic Ocean. But the *Wolf*, so far as we know, conducted her devastations more efficiently, more methodically than the *Moewe* and other predecessors of hers. She actually carried a seaplane, with the aid of which she located her prey. We wonder if any Government official shuddered in alarm at what might well have happened. Who knows but New York may have been in actual danger? There is no technical reason why the commander of the *Wolf* might not have ordered his plane to fly over Washington or New York and to destroy what it could.

A German raider, to all appearances an ordinary merchantman flying a neutral, even an American flag, can carry more than one seaplane. Awaiting a moment when the water is very smooth, the craft is dropped over-board. How much easier is this than the more difficult feat of erecting an assembling platform on a submarine? To be sure, the risk of being discovered is ever present; but if it is incurred by a *Wolf* bent on commerce-destroying, it may also be incurred by a *Wolf* bent on bombing American cities. No technical difficulties need be overcome; only courage and luck are needed.

THE POSSIBILITIES OF SUBMARINE AND  
CAPTURED STEAMER

The risk of sending out a raider like the *Wolf* is always formidable. On the other hand, submarines easily run the British blockade. Suppose we substitute a submarine for a *Wolf*. What is to prevent a submarine loaded with seaplane sections from capturing an English or American steamer in the Atlantic? From transferring a crew to the prize as well as the seaplane parts? Why should not such a captured ship and its seaplane become a menace to the Atlantic seaboard? To all the objections that may be raised, there is always the sufficient answer: The Germans have captured steamers on the high seas and used them as commerce-destroyers, and the *Wolf* carried a seaplane. Combine both plans, and the danger that threatens New York and other coast cities becomes very real, very alarming.

New York is not so easily defended as London. A far greater number of batteries and searchlights would be required. Even if the necessary batteries have been mounted—and as yet we have seen no signs of such activity—the defenses could not be moved as far from Manhattan as they have been from the heart of London or Paris. What is more, the guns could be more easily evaded by a daring and skilful man in a fast seaplane-bomber.

NEW YORK—A SHINING MARK

How helpless is New York! Stand on the narrow platform that encircles the top of the Woolworth Building, and you behold the city almost as it appears to an airman flying lower than is his wont. How easily you recognize the clearly defined topographic features of the metropolis! There is the harbor, Governor's Island, and the Statue of Liberty enlightening the world. Here is Manhattan, a thin tongue protruding into the harbor and washed on either side by the Hudson and East Rivers. Across the Hudson you see Jersey City and Hoboken; across the East River, Brooklyn. A map is not half so easily read. You couldn't lose your way if you were the pilot of an aerial vessel—couldn't even at night. London, Paris, Berlin, must be scanned for a long time if their principal landmarks are to be identified from on high. New York identifies itself to one who has but glanced at a map. London has its docks on the Thames; but they are not comparable in extent or im-

portance with those of New York, or in accessibility from the air. Nor is the Thames like the Hudson—a long, lake-like expanse over which a seaplane can glide faster than any express train. Absolute inky gloom never prevails, even on a moonless night. Water is always distinguishable by its sheen. And New York is a port—a city of great water expanses.

So, the heart of New York, which is the island of Manhattan, is literally cut out for the eye to gaze upon, by the Hudson and East rivers, and the harbor itself. Imagine a seaplane launched fifty miles out at sea and manned by a former officer of a German transatlantic liner, a man who knows the city and its surroundings as well as he does his own pocket. He reaches lower Manhattan. He flies low to escape the fire of any guns we may have mounted to beat off aircraft. Skimming fifty feet above the docks that line the shores of the Hudson and East rivers, he releases his bombs—incendiary bombs which would set the entire water-side aflame. The projectiles have the motion of the machine and travel at first horizontally. He has only to direct his plane as if it were a gun at the particular wharf which he desires to hit. He cannot miss. Have we not read of the sudden downward swoops made by the airmen of Germany and the Allies on the helpless men in the trenches? The massed fire of rifles is of no avail in stopping such a descent. Have we not read how the flyers as they come spew death from machine-guns fired head-on? These tactics are far safer than those in which a man must indulge in fighting an adversary three miles in the air, or when dodging shrapnel hurled at him by anti-aircraft guns during a reconnaissance trip over the enemy's lines. If a pilot were to fly over New York or its harbor at any ordinary height, he would surely be hit by gunners who would concentrate their fire upon him from widely scattered points. But let him skim over the water at high speed, let him twist and turn as erratically as a swallow, and he is safe. Nothing would oppose him but the futile rifles of the river guards.

Surely, enough has here been presented to prove that non-combatants at home may yet experience some of the horrors that have been visited on Paris and London. The attack may never come. But if we cherish the illusion that New York and other coast cities are safe from aerial bombardment, we live in a fool's paradise.

# FROM COLLEGE DEAN TO WAR EXECUTIVE

## I.—FREDERICK P. KEPPEL OF COLUMBIA

BY LEVERING TYSON

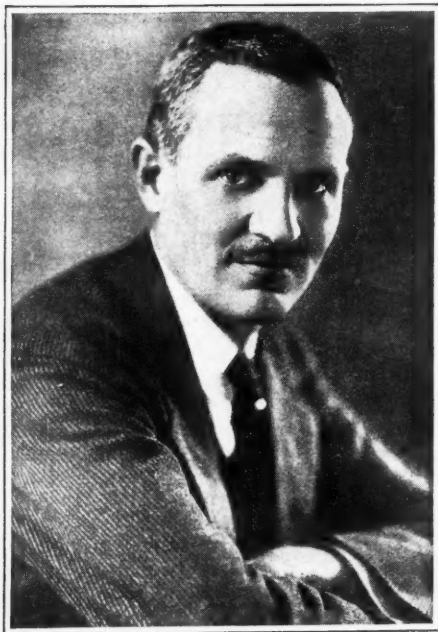
AS Columbia University has relied chiefly upon personality in determining the worth of members of the administrative and teaching staff, her history is an intertwining of the biographies of a succession of men who have compelled recognition of qualities which have ever won for them and for the University a prominent place in the life of the city, state, and nation. From the days of John Jay, Robert R. Livingston, Alexander Hamilton, and De Witt Clinton, through the period of the early eighties down to the present time, this has been true. Frederick Paul Keppel, recently appointed Third Assistant Secretary of War by Newton D. Baker, after an almost unbroken period of service at Columbia since 1894, is now in a position to offer to the Government the experience acquired in the service of an institution from which so many men have gone into the national service in the past.

He was graduated from Columbia College in 1898 and received the degree of A.B. For two years after graduation he served with Harper and Brothers in an editorial capacity. The next two years he was Assistant Secretary of the University, beginning his administrative and executive training while Seth Low was Columbia's President. When Nicholas Murray Butler succeeded Mr. Low early in 1902, Mr. Keppel had already been made Secretary of the University, and he soon demonstrated his seemingly innate ability to get things done expeditiously, meeting every situation strictly on its merits and having an uncanny faculty of sending everyone away in a happy frame of mind whether the inquirer got what he wanted or not. To anyone who knows the variety of demands which can emanate from an academic community, and who is familiar as well with the diversity of temperaments which give voice to the demands, it will be immediately apparent that Mr. Keppel's training was as

good a preliminary as could be secured anywhere for the task which he voluntarily assumed a year ago in Mr. Baker's ever crowded and tense anteroom.

About the time Mr. Keppel began to make his presence felt in Columbia's administrative circles, the late Dean Van Amringe, loved by many generations of Columbia men, began to grow old, or at least as old as anyone can grow who is endowed with the spirit of eternal youth. The academic authorities had to think of someone as his successor, providing against the time when age would make his retirement necessary. The importance of devoting individual attention to the individual student was becoming more and more recognized as a principle to be followed in Columbia College, and it was in recognition of the need for the big brother type of Dean on the one hand and on the other of the presence on the University staff of one who had the administrative experience and the necessary academic training, that Mr. Keppel was chosen. The selection was an unusually happy one. Columbia alumni had been saying for years, "God help the man who has to follow Van Am"; at the first public alumni function which "Van Am's" successor attended a storm of applause greeted the chairman's statement that "the mantle of Elijah has fallen upon Elisha." Thus quickly did Mr. Keppel win his way into the hearts of the older and the younger Columbia.

Successful as he had been as Secretary of the University, as Dean of the College he was even more so. Big brother he was indeed to all his students, for his own undergraduate experience had not yet faded into a dim and distorted memory; he was still able to grasp the student point of view and this gift made him immensely popular with the undergraduates and what is more



FREDERICK PAUL KEPPEL  
(Third Assistant Secretary of War)

important, with their parents. Through the latter he extended the College's and the University's usefulness to an older genera-

tion. His popularity increased and expanded to the alumni ranks.

The general satisfaction with which Mr. Keppel discharged his many executive and administrative tasks at Columbia at a time in the University's history when she was undergoing her greatest development is the best evidence of the wisdom that prompted his selection to a high administrative post in Government circles. His consideration of individuals, a trait acquired by constant contact with young men whose problems while relatively small were nevertheless real; his loyalty and enthusiastic devotion to any worth while project, a characteristic if not inborn, certainly developed in a wholesome academic community; and an unusually pleasant personality, have all combined to make him a prominent figure in the university life of this generation. A recent compilation shows that Columbia has contributed ten thousand alumni and students to the Government service. Mr. Keppel is not only the product of the spirit which prompted such a marvelous response to the nation's call, but he stands out as the best type of university bred men who in such large numbers, not only from Columbia, but from all institutions in the land as well, are assuming the arduous duties and great responsibilities of America's share in this world crisis.

## II.—DEAN KEPPEL IN THE WAR DEPARTMENT

BY DONALD WILHELM

COLLEGE deans, after all, are *not* a race apart. They are the lifters-up from sub-depression of sub-freshmen, and the takers-down of sophomores, to be sure; but theirs, nevertheless, is the study of human limitations, and that study is the source of all tact and sympathy and understanding. Even the Government, for their gifts, has recognized them. Dean Schneider, of the University of Cincinnati, to illustrate, is the head of the industrial division of the Ordnance Corps, a task requiring infinite tact and insight into human beings, such tact and insight as no man who has not studied young as well as old can have. Dean Gay, of Harvard, is plying his unusual faculties in the Shipping Board, and, like the pediatricists, or child doctors, seems habituated to remain-

ing young. Assistant Dean Castle, who frequently has been a friend to young enemies of Cambridge traditions, is, now, the establisher of communications between all American wounded and their kin.

These men have been chosen for their tact and sympathetic understanding.

And there is Dean Keppel, of Columbia College, who, all these months since June, has been moving busily and successfully, with quick and even and almost joyful stride, in and out of the grim and grey old corridors of the War Department, in and out of the rooms and councils and problems there, and, from caller to caller—from Congressman to Captain and Critic to Colonel—in that room of all sorts of callers, the Secretary's Reception Room.



Many of these callers have marveled at the Dean's honest diplomacy. And it *works*, they say. They come, some of them, to criticise and they stay to admire. It is a fact that one of them said to the writer: "I'm the buffer in a big corporation. I'm the assistant to the president—kind of an official harmonizer of all discordant elements—goat, sometimes, I'm told. I thought I was a real shock absorber, but Mr. Keppel—"

"—he's a Dean," I interrupted.

"Well, *that's* where he learned, is it?"

And another asked, what is more in point in this article, if it isn't possible that something in the wonderful spirit of the army got its origin in the office of the Secretary, and something of its wholesomeness from the Secretary and *his* Dean.

Probably it did. Certainly it were strange if it did not. Likely it is simple recognition of the fact that led to the nomination, now confirmed, of Dean Keppel as Third Assistant Secretary, the duties of whom, to quote the official letter from Secretary Baker to Congressman Dent, chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, are "To have charge of the life of the soldier in *all of its non-military aspects*," which means, simply, that he will be Dean of an "undergraduate body" bigger by far than all the universities in the world combined.

"He will have especial supervision for the Secretary of War," Mr. Baker went on, "of the various training camp activities dealing with vocational education and the administration of such problems as are presented by the very helpful activities of the Y. M. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, the Army chaplains, the recreational and hospital and health service of the camps."

Which means, simply, that at last the Government is going into the realm of what heretofore have been, necessarily, quasi-private problems of social betterment. It means, broadly, that the public is going into the private charities; recognition, therefore, of the work of that band of scientists called social workers, and the beginning of the end, likely, of many of our social woes.

And the Dean comes by his leadership naturally. Certainly he has demonstrated, in his book on the undergraduate, and, more notably, even, as the Secretary's even-handed aide, that his interests are in young people.

And meanwhile there were other social agencies busy, all as if in preparation of co-

ordination by the Government in a wonderful plan that is sure to come some day.

The Red Cross, guided in some of its departments by students of human hopes and limitations such as Director Persons, of the Home Service Section, who long had taught at the New York School of Philanthropy, soon saw that no soldier could shoot straight unless his family were free from the wolf at their door.

The War Risk Bureau, likewise with its eyes on the problems of reconstruction, made careful provision, in ways freely described by Dr. Lindsay in the April REVIEW OF REVIEWS, for the returning heroes.

And the Surgeon General's Department is developing a program to care for every man with anything of disability—"a plan," says Lt.-Colonel Frank Billings, of Rush Medical College, who was one of the American Mission to Russia and is now on General Gorgas' staff, "to make the blind see, the lame to walk, the deaf to understand; a plan, in a word, not only to restore men to health, but to restore them functionally as well to places in life and industry."

There are other agencies that are relating themselves to this huge and inclusive reconstruction program, which becomes more striking and providential when contrasted to reconstruction after the Civil War.

These agencies are alike in having as the major premise of success the fact that additional education can make up for additional disability; that Science, which makes modern war terrible, can nevertheless be used to overcome the results of war; that all the multitudinous efforts in America toward the realizations of our social aim, lend themselves to the leadership of the Government, and to the leadership of an experienced dean with a wide interest in social betterments.

It has not been determined that work of the Red Cross or other agencies not referred to in Secretary Baker's letter, shall be consolidated with those specifically mentioned. But it may be conjectured that they will be related; and the mere fact that non-military aspects of the soldiers are to be brought into the province of Uncle Sam is a long step toward eventual coördination.

That, in itself, is of vast significance.

And the selection of a dean to make the beginning step is of analogous significance.

And the selection of Dean Keppel hardly much less.

# MAKING DEMOCRACY EFFICIENT

THE OVERMAN BILL AS AN OPPORTUNITY

BY FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND

IF it is not "gassed" or "maimed a'bornin'," the people may wake up some day to learn that the Overman bill is one of the most significant proposals since 1789. It has been called a war measure, but the war has only put the Government to a test, which shows up its fundamental defect—a defect that President Wilson pointed to more than thirty years ago in that keenly analytical essay entitled "Congressional Government."

The Overman bill is more than a war measure because any statute which gives to the President the power to reorganize an executive and administrative machinery, under the circumstances, has the force of an amendment to the Constitution. It has this force because it gives back to the executive constitutional powers which, with his own consent, were taken away from him by statutes running back over a long period of years—such a long period of years that they have taken the place of the Constitution. Nevertheless these changes have been brought about by statute law and are changeable by statute. The bill, if passed, will give back powers which are absolutely essential to effective, responsible, democratic government—unless, it should be said,—unless this is rendered ineffective by the continuation of a procedure in Congress that has had the effect of annulling the Constitution.

## *The Cabinet and Congress*

In view of the fact that this procedure has a force that in the past has inverted the position of the executive, one added provision should be written into the bill—a clause should be added which would enable the President and the Cabinet to appear before Congress in an open, public way—in fact members of the Cabinet should be required to appear before Congress meeting as a "committee of the whole" to take up all matters initiated by them having to do with finance and administration.

It has been frequently stated that the establishment of a responsible form of Cabinet administration would require an amendment to the Federal Constitution. I submit that this can be brought about without even a change in statute law—simply by changing the rules of the House. If Congress were to change its rules so as to permit—and if necessary by statute require—the Cabinet to appear before it on public matters, as has been suggested, if the rules were so changed as to give priority to executive measures and a Cabinet member were required to appear personally before the House sitting as a committee of the whole to explain and defend, we would have the means of making the Government responsible.

Let us suppose, for example, that a majority of Congress refused to support the measure or measures urged by the President! What would happen? What could happen? Either the President would be forced to bring in an amended bill or proposal or he could be forced to reorganize his Cabinet at any time that a majority of the representative body was against him. If the rules were so changed that he or his Cabinet would be required to assume leadership, if the President were required to have men around him that would stand or fall on their ability to command the respect and support of a majority, the executive would be both responsible and responsive, no matter how much power might be given to him. We would have an executive who could be given the greatest power to direct because he could do nothing if he did not have a majority back of him. Congress, at any time of emergency, could force a coalition Cabinet, a Republican Cabinet, or any other kind of Cabinet, as a condition of granting supplies. The point that I make is that the principle left out of the bill is more important than the bill itself, for everything that is proposed in the bill would necessarily follow.

*Is It Undemocratic to Have Leadership?*

Senators, both Democratic and Republican, are spending long, tedious hours telling why they are against the Overman bill: "It is dangerous to put so much power in the executive." "It would make the President the most powerful autocrat the world has ever known." "It is undemocratic."

In this discussion the eye is not turned to France, where millions of men fighting for democracy are being imperilled for lack of something—something that the Hun has with him, and which he accepts from his leader as "*Gott mit uns*"—something that we have not and which we are told is "undemocratic." We are taught that it is democratic to be shiftless—unprepared; that the institutions of democracy can run on successfully without strong leadership; that it is not dangerous to have executive departments, all the processes of administrations dominated by forty or more irresponsible Congressional committees, the leadership of each of which is fixed by the principle of seniority, and whose interest it is to preserve and augment for their own power at the expense of the executive; that it is undemocratic to have the President and his Cabinet walk up the front steps of the Capitol and in full sight and hearing of the nation to go before the people's representatives to present matters of public business—to tell what the Government is doing, what it proposes to do, and explain their needs for funds. We are also told that it is quite democratic to have several hundred bureaus, bound up with red tape to a degree that renders the executive helpless in dealing with these forty-odd committees (the real Congress) by back-door approaches, giving an account of their stewardship and settling questions of policy behind closed doors with persons who are answerable only to a local constituency which looks to these committee-rooms as places where their representatives can go to get what is coming to them.

*Two Kinds of Administrative Machine*

The engines of democracy are now being put to test in a very practicable way. In this war, the most powerful political machines are being tried out, not alone for war purposes, but for productive uses as well. Generally speaking, these engines are of two types: (1) The type developed by a patronized Prussian autocracy; (2) the type developed by the builders of democracy. The efficiency of the first type has been demon-

strated. When the war broke out this was all tuned up; it was tuned up for making the most of the resources of the German people on the war front and behind the fighting line.

It was not until this machine, Juggernaut-like, had crushed its way through Belgium and northern France that the democracies of the world knew what kind of competition they had to meet. For the first time they saw a strong, united people in arms to a man, two Germanic empires bound together by blood ties and well organized for carrying out of every detail of a plan of military contest. They found them quite as well organized to carry on every detail of commercial and industrial activity on a national scale, well equipped and under able leadership—a leadership built up and tried out through half a century of vigorous discipline in institution-building. This is what democracy must compete with and win out against or accept defeat.

*Five Essentials of Sound Administration*

If we are to think sanely about the Overman bill, it must be with an appreciation of principles of political organization that make for strength in public service as well as effectiveness for democratic control.

At the risk of appearing didactic, I am going to repeat what have seemed to me to be the essentials of successful management. They are these:

(1) *Strong Executive Leadership.*—The stronger the better, the strongest that democracy can produce, with no limitations or inhibitions so long as this leadership has the support of those who are served.

(2) *A Well-Disciplined Line Organization.*—An organized personnel as large as may be needed to execute orders, to do the things that the people need to have done without human or material waste.

(3) *A Highly Specialized Staff Organization.*—An organized personnel, trained and set aside to study and report facts and conditions that must be taken into account by the leadership; where those who are responsible for direction may obtain the best possible basis for the exercise of discretion, developing a management made intelligent through staff knowledge as well as made strong through line discipline.

(4) *Adequate Facilities for Inquiry, Criticism, Discussion and Publicity by a Responsible Personnel Which Is Independent of the Executive.*—The making of the representa-

tive body a real forum with full opportunity given to a responsible, critical opposition under the leadership of persons who are well trained in the public service, a leadership as strong as that at the head of the executive.

(5) *The Means of Effective Control in the Hands of the People and Their Representatives.*—A control through which at any time, simply by adverse vote, the sceptre of power can be taken away from the executive and put into the hands of another without loss of line discipline, staff knowledge, or managerial experience, without loss of an ounce of efficiency, enabling democracy to change engineers at any time without stopping or slowing down the engine.

The first three of these are the essentials of an efficient government. The last two are the essentials of democratic control.

Now let us appraise the great engines of national accomplishment for peace and war that have come forward for the test.

The builders of the Prussian political engine used the first three principles only—they had no interest in democracy except to crush it. The Prussian war lords kept out of the German constitution the principles which made for democratic control—their leaders gaining loyal support and contentment of the people through a paternalistic service in the same way as did the head of the family under the old Mosaic law—by developing a culture which left no alternative open to the individual other than to accept this benevolent paternalism enforced by a penal practise that because of its added horrors has become known as *Schrecklichkeit*.

#### *Britain Left Out the Second and Third*

Great Britain, in building up her imperial organization, has stressed the first, the fourth, and the fifth of these principles. Britain has provided for political leadership. But she has from the first insisted that this leadership shall be responsible, and therefore the attention of British statesmen has been devoted primarily to expedients which will insure democratic control. Because of her national strength, because of her predominance, because of her control over the sea, however, it was not until the beginning of this war that Britons were made to see the necessity of utilizing the second and third principles—the necessity of providing for a well-disciplined line for operating her national activities and a well-trained scientific staff to assist in executive direction.

#### *France Used All the Principles*

France had developed an engine in which all five of these essential principles of political mechanics were used to good effect, but she was late in seeing the need and had not the human or material resources to build large enough and strong enough to compete successfully with the Prussians, and it was only through brave Belgium's sacrifice that France was saved from destruction.

Russia provided for leadership, but did not make it strong, and neglected all four other essentials. It was nothing but her mass, weight, and size that held the Prussian war engine on her border for three and a half years.

#### *America Has Left Out All of Them*

America has developed a type of engine all her own—one built in disregard of all of these principles of successful organization and management. The fact that the opposition is now banking on in the effort to talk the Overman bill to death is this—that the most conspicuous thing in all American political history is fear of strong executive leadership. For this reason, we have not developed a well-disciplined line organization. We have not developed a strong, intelligent staff—in fact, this is a thing impossible without strong executive leadership.

We have not developed adequate facilities for independent responsible inquiry, criticism, discussion, and publicity, because the initiative is kept in legislative committees. We have not developed means of effective control in the hands of the people and their representatives, because we had an irresponsible executive.

#### *Can We Make Our Democracy Efficient?*

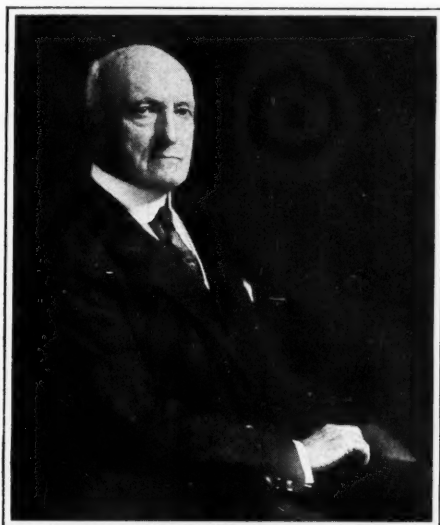
With these known requirements and defects, we now have before us in the Overman bill the largest, the most vital political question that we have ever had to decide. It is this: Shall we as a democracy so organize that our executive can effectively direct and use the forces and resources of the nation for common welfare ends—be they the ends of peace or war? Or, let us put the question more broadly: Can we and our Allies so far adapt and tune up our political machinery that we may demonstrate in actual competition with Prussian autocracy an efficiency that is adequate for self-protection, and at the same time make it consistent with the aims and purposes of democracy?



# MASSACHUSETTS IN ACTION

BY HON. SAMUEL W. McCALL, GOVERNOR OF  
MASSACHUSETTS

[The distinguished War Governor of Massachusetts sends for our readers the following summarized statement of the important steps taken by the Commonwealth to support the National Government in carrying on the war. While noting these official activities, the reader should also have in mind the great industrial capacity of the manufacturing towns in Massachusetts, where almost incredible quantities of cotton and woollen cloths, army shoes, munitions, and various supplies are being turned out for Uncle Sam's armies and navies.—THE EDITOR.]



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GOVERNOR SAMUEL W. M'CALL, OF MASSACHUSETTS

ON February 9, 1917, I appointed a hundred of the influential citizens of the Commonwealth as the Massachusetts Committee on Public Safety, and through them there have been initiated measures for the protection of the manifold interests of the State, its armed forces, and its inhabitants, during the prosecution of the war. I understand that the plan of this committee has been adopted in nearly every State in the Union.

The next most important step taken was the organization of the State Guard, under authority of Chapter 148 of the General Acts, approved April 5, 1917, for service in case of need in Massachusetts. This is composed of men not otherwise liable for military service, and takes the place of the militia men called into the service of the United

States during their absence from the Commonwealth, and they can, of course, be used for any purpose to insure the protection of Massachusetts and her industries.

The third most important thing, perhaps, was the enactment by the Massachusetts Legislature of the "Commonwealth Defense" Act, under authority of Chapter 342 of the General Acts, approved May 26, 1917, by which extraordinary powers were conferred upon the Governor during the period of the war, leading to the better protection of the Commonwealth and its inhabitants. This provides the Governor with absolute authority in case he wishes to exercise it in every way that can be thought of.

On March 13, a conference was called of the New England governors, to which Major-General Leonard Wood was invited, and problems affecting New England regarding the conduct of the war were discussed as well as methods of co-operation with the National Government; also New England war measures were decided upon.

The Federal Government being unable to fully equip the Massachusetts Militia, an Act was passed on March 19, 1917, Chapter 202 of the Special Acts, and \$1,000,000 was appropriated to properly arm and clothe the Massachusetts troops. This enabled the Massachusetts soldiers to answer the call of the Federal Government, and enabled them to be the first to go across the seas.

The Commonwealth also passed legislation providing for the dependents of the soldiers, and for additional pay for the soldiers themselves, and books for the soldiers. The cities and towns were authorized to pay employees engaged in the Federal military service the amount that they would have received had they remained in municipal service; in other words, the difference between their regular pay and the pay of the Federal

Government was made up to such employees.

Cities and towns were also authorized to make emergency appropriations for the conservation and distribution of food, and for other purposes incident to the war.

One million dollars was appropriated for emergency war expenditures during the recess of the General Court, and a sufficient sum of money was appropriated to maintain the State Guard.

The sum of \$30,000 was provided for the protection of the health and morals of troops in Massachusetts military camps.

Legislation was also passed increasing the powers of the Attorney-General in proceedings to protect the public against discriminations and other unlawful practices in the restricting of trade.

A committee was named for the purpose of investigating and settling strikes. Among the one hundred or more strikes that have been settled, or that have been stopped in their early steps, the most important, perhaps, are:

The Gloucester fishermen's strike, which threatened the food supply of the nation; the strike of 15,000 Lynn shoeworkers; the strike of the Boston & Albany and Boston & Maine employees, which threatened to paralyze New England's transportation facilities; strikes of Boston teamsters and long-shoremen, and the threatened strike of the Boston Elevated Railway employees, which

would have tied up the transportation of metropolitan Boston.

Massachusetts has led in the matter of food conservation and conservation of fuel. New England was severely threatened during the winter with a fuel famine, but through the efforts of the Fuel Commission, New England managed to get along, and Massachusetts, although seriously handicapped, went through the winter without any great amount of suffering.

At the instigation of Massachusetts five sawmill units were organized and sent across the water to assist the soldiers in supplying lumber, etc., for war purposes.

Last year Massachusetts started the plan of having boys between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one help on the farms, and this plan has been adopted in a large measure by most of the States in the Union and has received the endorsement of the national authorities through the Bureau of Agriculture and that of Labor.

Massachusetts has helped the Federal Government in many other ways, and has responded generously to the various calls made upon it—for the Liberty Loan, and for other agencies working for the welfare of the soldiers.

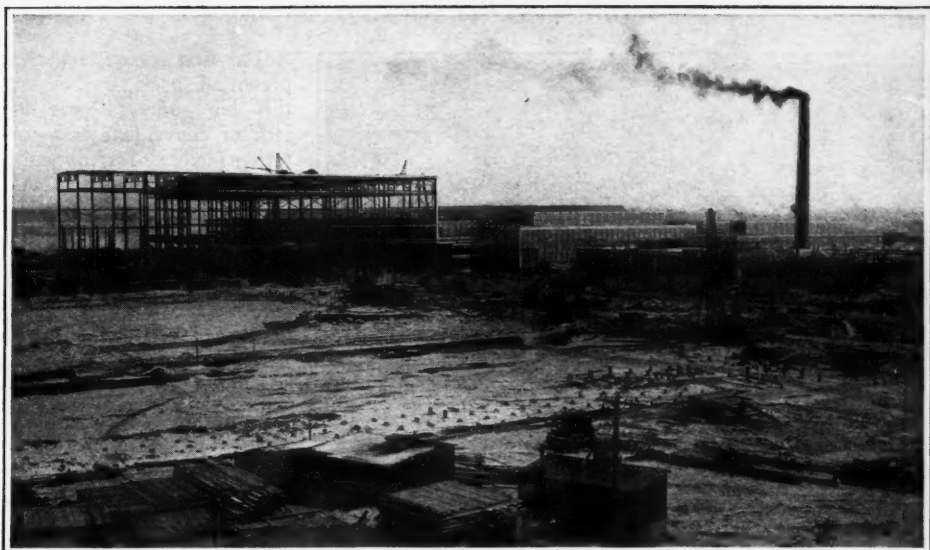
She not only has done this, but she will continue to do that which she will be called upon from time to time to do by the Federal Government.



Photograph by Boston Industrial Development Board

#### BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF BOSTON, THE MASSACHUSETTS METROPOLIS

(The figures on the illustration designate: (1) Commonwealth Pier; (2) city of Boston proper, the new Custom House Tower in the foreground; (3) Hoosac Tunnel Docks, Charlestown—Bunker Hill Monument to the right (midway between 3 and 4 is the Charlestown Navy Yard, which is working at top war speed); (4) Mystic Docks, where the steamers from Japan and China and many from Europe dock; (5) East Boston waterfront, site of the Cunard and Leyland line docks; (6) site of the immense new drydocks and the proposed "National Terminal," which will be the largest single building in the world. Boston's main ship channel, connecting all these docks, has a depth at mean low water of forty feet, leading directly through the islands in the harbor, which act as a bulkhead to Massachusetts Bay.)



THE FAMOUS "VICTORY" SHIPBUILDING PLANT AT SQUANTUM, A BOSTON SUBURB  
(In October last the site of this shipyard was a marsh, part of which was used as a field for the training of naval aviators)

## BOSTON IN WAR PAINT

BY GEORGE F. HINES

(Assistant Secretary, Boston Chamber of Commerce)

**B**OSTON is in the midst of a tremendous rejuvenation as the result of the war. Activities which were dormant or moving sluggishly before the United States entered the struggle have been galvanized into life by the mighty efforts of the Government to participate quickly in the conflict, with the result that if plans now under consideration materialize the capital of New England will take its place as one of the great embarkation points for shipment overseas.

Ever since participation by the United States in the war became imminent, New England manufactories, shops and mills have been working at top capacity, turning out supplies and munitions for the Government at a great rate. At first the resultant tide of freight was directed towards New York, but the difficulties in shipping that developed around that port during the winter compelled Governmental authorities to look for another large embarkation point, that would lend itself readily to quick shipment to France and England.

Being the natural terminus of New England railroads, Boston was chosen as the

port that offered the most advantages on the Atlantic coast, next to New York, besides being 200 miles nearer Europe than any other large Atlantic port. Immense developments are now under way, shipbuilding plants and docks are being rushed to completion, and before many months, Boston will become a landing place for Pershing's "bridge of ships" and an immense war port.

Within a radius of 150 miles from Boston are the centers of the textile and the leather industry of the country. Within this region, a large part of the guns, rifles, and ammunition which our boys will use against the Huns are manufactured. Everyone knows the history of New England shipbuilding. Its regeneration as the result of the war has been sudden, but gives great promise.

Probably the most important war establishment in Greater Boston at the present time is the Fore River Shipbuilding plant in Quincy, which is busy turning out a large percentage of the new ships for the navy. Within the past year the working force at this plant has been doubled, and the plant extended, till at present 12,000 shipworkers are employed there on from sixty to seventy



SCENE IN ONE OF THE GREAT FORE RIVER SHOPS

ships of all classes of construction. About 75 per cent of these ships are for the navy. Fore River is at present competing with the Union Iron Works of California, for the honor of turning out the largest number of ships.

One of the most wonderful accomplishments of the past year has been the building of the Victory Plant at Squantum, which cost the Navy Department \$9,000,000 to construct. Last October the 1500 acres which this establishment occupies was a marsh, part of which was being used as an aviation field for the training of naval aviators. To-day it stands a fully-equipped, substantial shipbuilding yard and before a month has passed, it will probably be in full operation, the biggest torpedo-boat plant in the world.

Censorship necessarily forbids revealing the many wonderful things that happened—the great obstacles overcome in erecting this plant in the short space of four months.

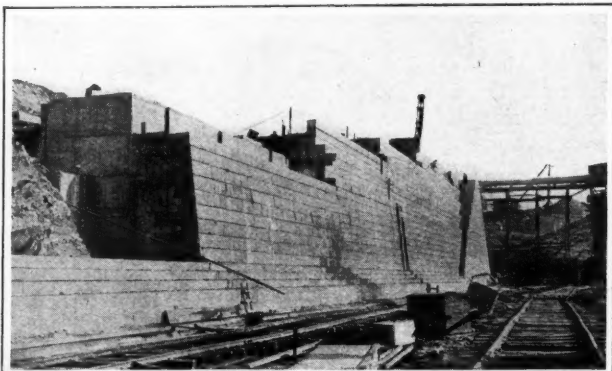
Suffice it to say that 4000 workmen put up the buildings, power-house, machine-shops, sheds, docks, and administration buildings, in the face of the bitterest winter that New England has ever undergone, suffering hardships that were almost intolerable, in record-breaking time. Situated at the mouth of the Neponset River, it is now a thriving industrial city, ready for the word that will doom the U-boat.

The first big obstacle that presented itself in building this big shipyard was the lack of convenient transportation facilities for the workmen to and from their work. The nearest car line, a one-track affair, was a mile away. Within two weeks after construction had started, the Government appropriated \$200,000 for a bridge across the river, connecting the plant with Boston and trunk street-car lines to all parts of the city. This new artery of travel, "Victory Bridge," has been completed for several months. Both

the plant and bridge are of substantial, permanent erection.

The sudden boom at Fore River and Squantum has resulted in an extremely difficult housing problem in Quincy. This embarrassing situation is already being smoothed away as the result of a \$3,000,000 appropriation for houses which the Government has just made available. At the present time, beds in the vicinity of both plants are literally working in three shifts, the crowding is so bad.

A few years ago the State started building a long-proposed drydock in South Boston which would be the biggest on the Atlantic Coast. When war was declared and it was seen that there would be a great need for just such a basin at Boston, the work, which had been allowed to slack somewhat, was begun again with renewed vigor. The Massachusetts Legislature has just appropriated



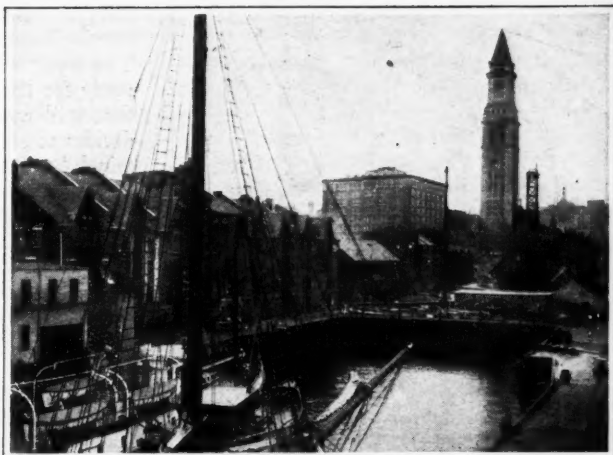
THE LARGEST DRY DOCK ON THE ATLANTIC COAST, TO BE COMPLETED AT BOSTON IN JANUARY NEXT



\$778,341 additional funds, so that it will be ready for use by January next. The excavation has been completed and a large part of the base and sidewalls finished.

The drydock is situated in a large stretch of made land, owned by the State, fronting on the harbor, and offering excellent opportunities for industrial development. When it became apparent that the United States would be drawn into the struggle, the Boston Chamber of Commerce, the Massachusetts Waterways Commission, and other public and quasi-public organizations took up the problem of how the port of Boston could be best adapted to war conditions. The Joint Port Storage Facilities Committee was appointed by Governor McCall, representing various trade organizations and the Waterways Commission. President Henry I. Harriman of the Chamber was made chairman, and Chairman John N. Cole of the Waterways Commission was made the representative of the State.

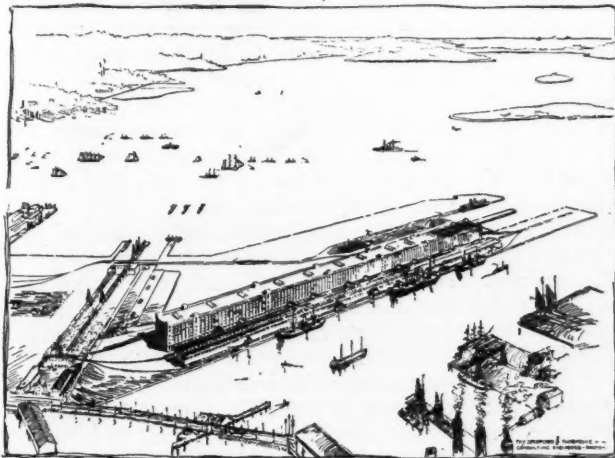
Frederick H. Fay, a well-known Boston engineer, and a director of the Chamber, was asked to study the situation, and report how the port could be best developed, and what would be the best site for a great railroad terminus and warehouse, which might be



OLD AND NEW BOSTON—CUSTOM-HOUSE TOWER IN THE BACKGROUND

needed. After an exhaustive study, the South Boston tract was selected as offering the best opportunities for immediate development, particularly in the neighborhood of the reserve channel, which is a deep, wide inlet, cutting into South Boston alongside the open tract. These plans were laid before the War Department, which responded by asking Mr. Fay to draw up plans for a gigantic dock warehouse with a two-story parallel loading shed, directly alongside the channel, the entire project to cost in the neighborhood of \$25,000,000. The original plans call for a storehouse, 2400 feet long, eight stories in height, the largest single building in the world, and capable of handling several ships at a time. The nearest approach in size to such a building would be the Louvre, in Paris.

It would contain about 2,500,000 feet of floor space, and the most up-to-date appliances for handling all kinds of freight in record time. The plan calls for modern factory construction, of permanent substantial character, so that the terminal could easily be transformed into factories after the war. There is a strong possibility that it will be seriously considered as a base for the Emergency Fleet after peace is declared. The Commonwealth has first op-



THE GREAT "NATIONAL TERMINAL" NOW BUILDING AT BOSTON



BRIDGE BUILT BY THE GOVERNMENT TO SHORTEN THE JOURNEY OF THE WORKMEN TO AND FROM THE "VICTORY" PLANT AT QUANTUM

tion on the proposed terminal, if the War Department decides to dispose of it, because of the assistance it gave the project in transferring the land at a minimum cost to the national government.

Designed primarily to relieve congestion in New York, the terminal would be a "reservoir" of all kinds of supplies, with a maximum capacity of 5000 tons of mixed freight, inward and outward bound every day. Freight trains will run alongside the dock on the land side, the supplies unloaded on to motor cars and trailers, and then sorted and classified according to character in the building. It is planned that the cargo for an overseas steamer will be assembled on the loading shed before the ship arrives. At the present time this plan is in abeyance, awaiting acceptance by the War Department and the necessary appropriation. If the proposed warehouse, appropriately named the "National Terminal," is accepted it will mean a tremendous enlargement of facilities by the New Haven road to care for the hundreds of freight cars that will arrive at the storehouse every day. Two large classification and distributing yards are proposed. The railroad foresaw the coming development of the South Boston waterfront and a few years ago started enlarging the open cut through South Boston, from two to four tracks. The made land in South Boston is also the site of the new Fish Pier and Commonwealth Pier, the largest pier in the world, and practically every pound of freight to and from these

piers and to the New Haven freight sheds in South Boston must pass through this cut. The work is nearing completion and will be ready for the big stream of building supplies that will come when the War Department decides to start building the "National Terminal."

When war was declared, the Navy Department was offered the use of Commonwealth Pier, which it quickly accepted. It was transformed almost over night into a recruiting and receiving station for embryo sailors. Three thousand men are in constant training on the pier, dubbed the *U. S. S. Concrete* by the boys. They sleep in hammocks, get their meals at a model kitchen, and live exactly the same life they would lead aboard ship. In addition, the pier contains a big theater, bowling alleys, pool-rooms, libraries, schoolrooms, large administration offices, and gymnasium for their use.

Recruits from all over the country are constantly arriving at the station, receive their training in seamanship, and are shipped away to active duty on board a United States warship. About a mile away from the pier, the Waterways Commission, which is in charge of the land for the State, has laid out a training field, upon which the men are taught to march and drill.

A stone's throw from Commonwealth Pier is the new Fish Pier, which has greatly increased in activity as the result of the Food Administration's orders to conserve wheat and meat. Boston is the biggest fish port in the world, and practically all the fish that comes to Boston is landed at the Fish Pier, to be salted and packed for shipment all over the country. A trolley freight line is being built at the urgent request of the Food Administration to facilitate the shipment of fish throughout Greater Boston, thus relieving local freight and team traffic. A freight shed is being built nearby and within the next six months Bostonians will be enjoying the novelty of having their fish delivered almost directly by street cars.

If these facts are not sufficient proof that Massachusetts is alive to the war situation and its possibilities, it might be stated here that there is a bill in its final stages in the Legislature calling for \$1,700,000 for additional improvements in South Boston in connection with war development. When this sum is available, new streets will be pushed through, sewers placed, and all necessary dredging will be done.

There is hardly an activity in Greater

Boston that is not humming under war pressure. The Watertown Arsenal has been greatly enlarged during the past year, and is turning out many big guns for the army. Both Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology have turned a large part of their equipment over to the Government. At Harvard is a special naval radio school, where hundreds of boys are being trained. A school for naval officers is also maintained by the Navy Department here, while the dormitories are packed with men in uniform. A ground school for army and navy aviators is maintained at Technology, also a school to train merchant marine officers.

Boston is the national center for recruiting the merchant marine. Young men are learning 'steamship navigation and marine engineering, to take their places in the new ships that the Emergency Fleet Corporation is building, on several coastwise steamers, commandeered for the purpose.

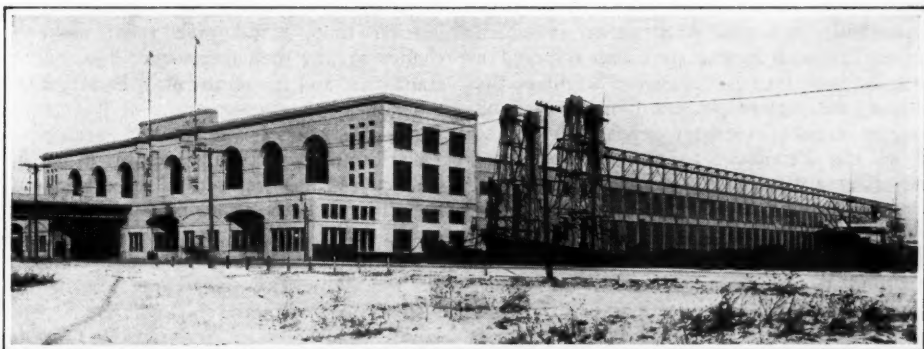
The immense Ford Automobile plant in Cambridge has been turned over to the Army and is being used as a Quartermaster's Depot, employing thousands of clerks and workmen. With all these war activities as an inspiration, Boston has gone "over the top" in magnificent fashion in the Liberty Loan, Red Cross, Y. M. C. A., Knights of Columbus, and other great drives for funds. A warm and hearty welcome was extended to Joffre, the Prince of Udine, and the other Allied Missions, and even though New England suffered more in the coal shortage last winter than any other section of the country, and was for weeks on half-rations of sugar, these hindrances were not allowed to slow-up the "war-speed" which the whole section of the country has hit.

The Massachusetts Public Safety Committee is a story in itself. It was the first organization of its kind formed in the country when war began. Chairman James J. Storrow and Executive Secretary Henry B. Endicott have worked wonders with their organization. No problem is too difficult. While Mr. Storrow was in Washington pleading for more coal as New England Fuel Administrator, Endicott remained in Boston settling big labor difficulties and strikes with one hand and directing the office of New England Food Administrator with the other. The Committee has been so successfully managed and has done such wonderful work, backed up by "War Governor" Samuel Walker McCall, that it has been a model for practically every State in the Union.

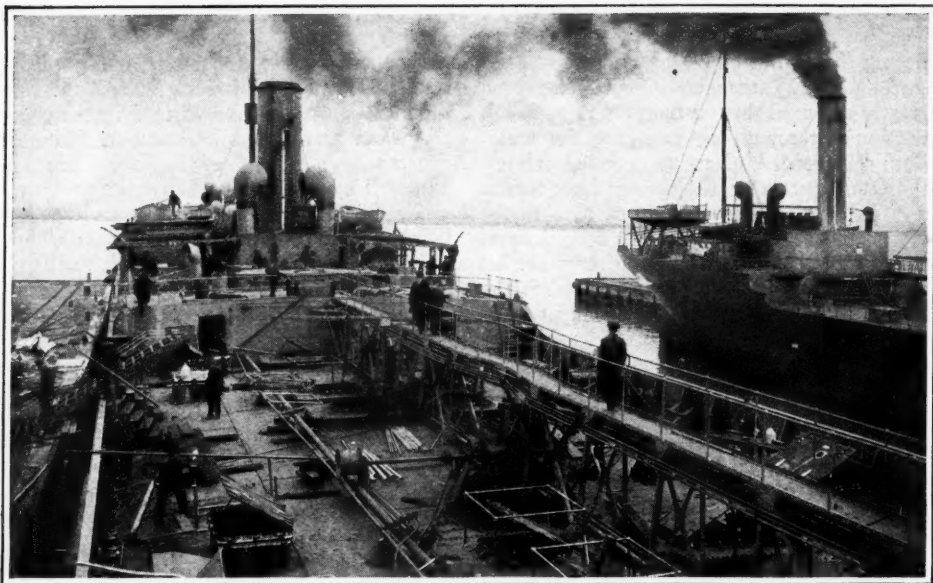
It did yeoman service at the time of the Halifax disaster. Twelve hours after news had arrived of the dire need of supplies in the stricken city, a relief train left Boston, with a full corps of doctors, medical supplies, beds, and food.

The Massachusetts Waterways Commission has taken a leading part in the development of the port. Chairman John N. Cole and the other members have worked unceasingly to this end, striving hard for full co-operation with the Army and Navy Departments, that Massachusetts may do "her bit," not only by sending her sons to France and to sea, but to bring them their food, guns, ammunition and supplies.

In the development of Boston and New England to their full status during the war, the Boston Chamber of Commerce has performed a tremendous amount of work. Its labor has been section-wide. It has probably started more of the local war activities than any other institution.



THE GREAT COMMONWEALTH PIER, NOW KNOWN AS THE "U. S. S. CONCRETE," HOUSING THOUSANDS OF EMBRYO SAILORS FOR THE AMERICAN MERCHANT MARINE THAT IS TO BE



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A TYPICAL SCENE IN ONE OF MANY STEEL SHIPYARDS ALONG THE NEW ENGLAND COAST

## NEW ENGLAND ONCE AGAIN ON THE SEA

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN

**A**DZE, auger and calking mallet are busy again along the New England coast, as they have not been since the period before the Civil War, when in a single year 381 ships and barques and 126 brigs were launched from American yards for overseas commerce. This present great war has quickened a decadent, almost a dead, industry into new, vigorous life. Not only have old shipyards been reopened but many new plants have been built, and steel construction in which New England long lagged has achieved a mighty impetus. Never in the height of the clipper era was so great a tonnage in hand on the hundred-harbored Yankee shore line from the Penobscot to the Connecticut—never were there so many workers employed, and never was there such a stirring spirit of high hope and determination. New England was for this war long before the country and Washington were ready to face it, and New England realized long before it was grasped elsewhere that it is ships—American ships—on which the fate of the world-conflict is depending.

510

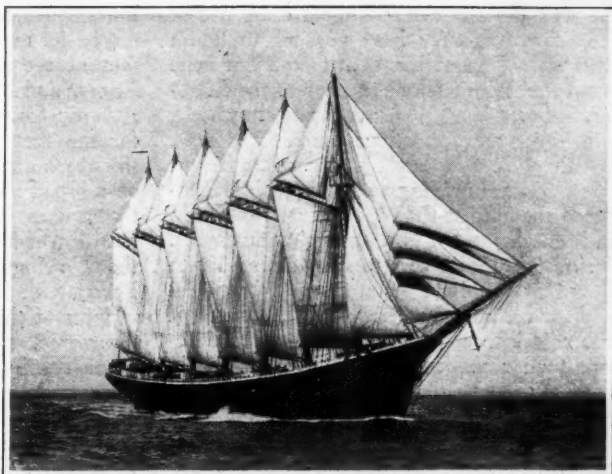
It is an extraordinary transformation which three years have wrought. When the war-cloud broke, in 1914, it found New England ports full of idle vessels, the few surviving shipyards almost deserted, and American maritime enterprise in general at the lowest ebb of discouragement. For half a century New Englanders who loved the sea and followed it, as their race had for generations, had been petitioning Congress for legislation that would give them an equal chance against the cheap wages, lower living standards and governmental bounties and subsidies of their competitors of Europe and Japan. National aid lavishly granted to American manufacturing and agriculture had been persistently refused to American navigation, and the entrance into power in 1913 of political forces that for the most part had shown a complete indifference if not hostility to the American merchant marine had seemed to Northern shipowners and shipbuilders to presage irretrievable disaster. The condition of the maritime industry of the United States when President Wilson



began his term of service is vividly demonstrated in the official figures of ship construction for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1914—a total of only 316,250 tons gross register, including not so much as one seagoing craft designed for deep-sea or foreign commerce. American construction in the ensuing year totalled only 225,122 tons, the smallest output since 1898.

#### WAR REVIVAL OF SHIPBUILDING

Even before the policy of the new Shipping Board was formulated, there had come a distinct revival in American shipbuilding and navigation. The demands of our war export trade, which could no longer be fully met by foreign ships, gradually drew into overseas service not only many of the steamers of our coastwise fleet but many of the larger sail vessels. Quickly, then, the shipbuilders and shipowners of New England seized their



Photograph by N. L. Stebbins, Boston

A YANKEE SIX-MASTER

opportunity. New steamers and new sail vessels were ordered. The principal New England steel shipyard, that of the Fore River Corporation, at Quincy on Boston Harbor, came for the first time to its full capacity. Large schooners of a thousand tons and upward were laid down by far-seeing merchants, in the yards of Connecticut and Maine.

All this was the work of private capital. These vessels were designed and built for shipowners who calculated to employ them in foreign commerce throughout the war and in protected coastwise commerce afterward. But a further and tremendous impetus was soon given to New England shipbuilding by the adoption of the Shipping Board's ambitious program of wood and steel construction, calling for 6,000,000 tons deadweight capacity, and by the suddenly expanded naval building policy of the United States.

These three factors combined have brought about the unexampled activity that rules to-day in the shipyards of New England. One picturesque feature of it is the return of the wooden sailing vessels—three-, four-, and five-masted schooners—whose days seemed ended until



SHIPPING CENTERS AND YARDS ON THE NEW ENGLAND COAST

the war drew our fore-and-aft craft out of the coast trade for long voyages to South America, West Africa, even to the war zone about the British Isles and far into the Mediterranean. They are economical vessels, sailed by small crews, these Yankee schooners, and they are now earning emergency freight rates, and are proving to be veritable bonanzas to the patient shareholders who had held on through years of lean or missing dividends. A single run with coal to Italy or lumber to Brazil or the River Plate would bring receipts exceeding the price at which the craft was held before the war began. For a thousand-tonner valued at perhaps \$30,000 in 1914, \$75,000 or more was freely offering. Shrewd owners took the bids, sold their old vessels and ordered new schooners of a large size which for their maiden voyage sometimes received the whole cost of construction. Soon all the active wooden shipyards of Maine and Connecticut had all their ways occupied, and old yards were sought which had not laid a keel for many a year.

#### STEAMERS FOR THE SHIPPING BOARD

To some of these wooden yards came an unfamiliar task in the construction of the wooden steamers of the original Shipping Board—heavy hulls 300 feet in length, of 3500 tons burden, larger than all but the greatest clipper ships of an earlier generation. For the frames of these steamers massive timbers had to be sought in the Pacific Northwest—gone were the giant oaks which had once borne New England cargoes to the uttermost ports of the world. Bands of gray-beards, largely, were the workmen who stretched the keels, set up the frames, and fastened the planking, but their eyes were true and their sinews strong. The trade of their youth had come to life again; there was one more chance to serve their flag and their country.

Side by side with the new ships of wood on the New England coast line are now rising new ships of steel. In the Sewall yard at Bath, long famous for tall clippers of the Cape Horn trade, but deserted and grass-grown when this war began, huge tank steamers are building. Further down the Kennebec at the Bath Iron Works, are the lean shapes of destroyers destined for submarine-hunting off Ireland and France—and near are a Shipping Board steamship and great schooners for deep-sea commerce. Government freighters are building at Thomaston, South Freeport, and Portland.

Portsmouth on the deep Piscataqua has renewed its maritime glory. Within musket-shot of the shore where John Paul Jones' *Ranger* and *America* were launched, the new Atlantic Corporation is preparing the ways for the first of a fleet of ten steel steamships each of 8800 tonnage, while further up, on a broad river reach, in the Shattuck yard the frames of the pioneers of a Shipping Board wooden fleet of eighteen rise along the Newington farm lands. At the old Portsmouth Navy Yard, where the shipwrights of the sixties wrought the victorious *Kearsarge*, riveters are busy on Secretary Daniels' submarines.

#### A GREAT DESTROYER FLEET

Boston Harbor holds, on Squantum Peninsula, the Victory yard, "the largest destroyer-building plant in existence," now rapidly nearing completion as a subsidiary of the great Fore River Shipbuilding establishment of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, a few miles southward. Here an important part of the naval program is in operation that will give the United States the most powerful destroyer force in the world. Almost all of the Fore River resources are devoted to naval work, of which no details can be set forth—save that there are 15,000 men in the Fore River service. The Boston Navy Yard at Charlestown, with shops and docks crowded, has other thousands of its own.

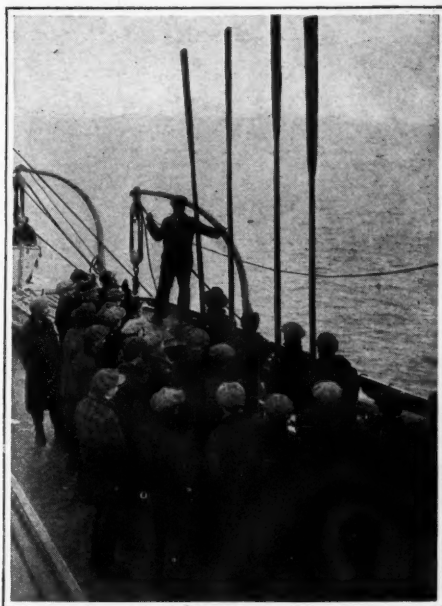
Near the fortress entrance to Long Island Sound, New London and Groton are building submarine engines and steel merchant ships, and scaffolding alive with men and ringing with the familiar shipyard music stands again in Mystic, Noank, Stratford, and Stonington. Once more the Sound is building not barges for alongshore, but stout ships for the deep sea and the trade winds.

From Eastport to the East River there is a steady determination that the reborn industry shall be something more than the ephemeral effort of a war emergency. For the first time in many years builders and workmen believe that their country has awakened to the need of a real American merchant marine, and that their Government stands behind them in a spirit of friendly understanding. Wages, materials, and costs are very high—but they are also among our overseas competitors. The shadow of a hostile, discriminating British Lloyd's Register, which in the old years did far more than British mail subsidies to kill American navigation and close American yards, no longer

falls along the New England coast line, for the new Shipping Board has used its power to develop our own American Bureau of Shipping as a sure foundation of an American system of marine survey, inspection, and insurance, without which there can be no hope of survival of a national merchant marine when the war has ended.

#### YANKEE OFFICERS AND CREWS

American capital is going again into the business of building, owning, insuring, and operating ocean ships, which founded the first fortunes of New England. More than that, American boys are going back to sea. Our great new commercial fleet must be wholly officered and, so far as possible, manned by American citizens in these days of sudden treachery and deadly submarines. From the tall tower of the Custom House overlooking Boston Harbor, Henry Howard, Director of the Shipping Board recruiting service, has enrolled and trained within a few months in government navigation schools 1500 deck and engineer officers—men of experience who as youths had gone to sea and left it in years past because our dwindling fleet gave Americans no proper opportunity. At the call of their nation these men have come back to the life they loved and have qualified for posts of responsibility and command. In New England and other coastal districts almost 6000 men passed the United States examinations for licensed officers between July 1, 1917, and February 28, 1918. Thus far, as our new ships have come

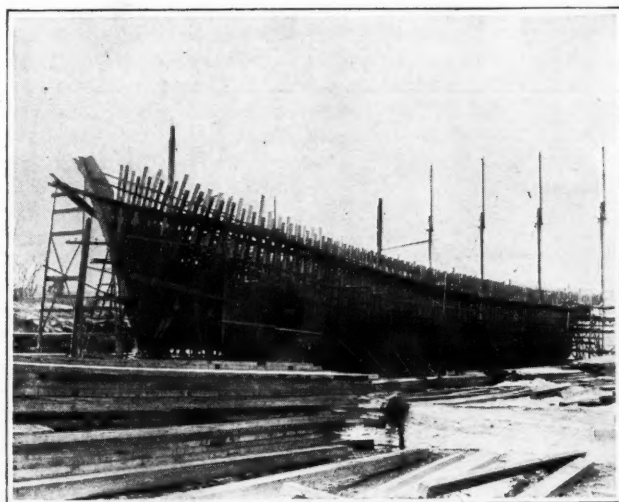


LECTURE ON BOAT DRILL ON THE "CALVIN AUSTIN,"  
THE SHIPPING BOARD'S MERCHANT MARINE  
TRAINING SHIP AT BOSTON

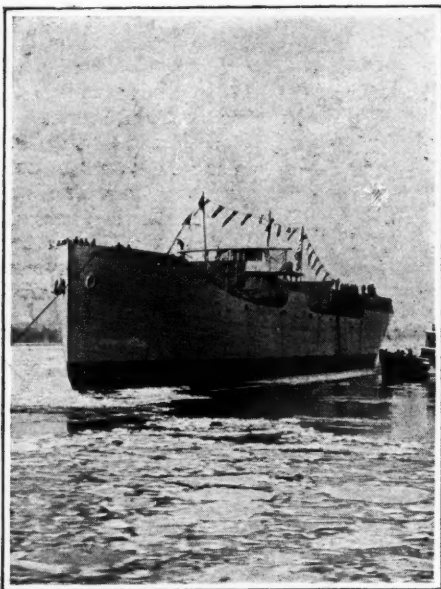
forward, there have been American masters, mates, and engineers ready to take charge.

Shipowners and the Government in these war exigencies demand trustworthy American seamen and firemen—and the Shipping Board has undertaken to supply them. With Mr. Howard, of Boston, as director, a fleet of training ships is being assembled, several

hundred recruits have already been received, and the first of them have been graduated and sent to join the crews of American merchantmen in active service. These are all American lads, the brothers and cousins of the bluejackets of the American Navy, most of them from the towns and farms of New England, successors of the crews of our frigates, sloops, and clippers of years ago. With a spirit worthy of emulation, the yacht owners of Boston have set aside their largest and stateliest pleasure craft for the training of these merchant marine lads in the art of practical seamanship. From New



A WOODEN SHIP BUILT IN A MAINE YARD



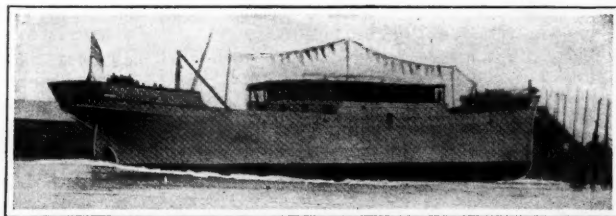
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ONE OF THE GOVERNMENT'S STANDARDIZED STEEL SHIPS, AFTER LAUNCHING

England, its birthplace, the Shipping Board's recruiting service will be expanded as rapidly as possible to other seaboard States—for the complete manning of our new fleet of more than a thousand ships will demand 50,000 American seamen. These men of the merchant service on shipboard, like those on the shipyard lists of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, are registered in the preferred classes of exemption from the draft—as well they may

be. For the skill of the shipyard mechanics is indispensable to the launching of the tonnage that must convey our troops overseas, supply and maintain them in France, and feed and save our Allies, while the American crews of our merchant ships must face, voyage after voyage, the grim hazard of the war zone.

Maritime New England, that has given far more than its quota to the navy, has men as well as money for the merchant marine. Nowhere else in the world is the call of the sea so strong and so insistent generation after generation as on the gray, rugged shore line, in the hamlets of the farmer-fishermen, and in the weatherbeaten ports of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. There, more than anywhere else, for two and a half centuries men have been shipowners and seamen, not by necessity, but by choice, commanding a world-wide prestige in their calling, and leaving it at the last by pressure of adverse conditions largely of their own Government's making—quitting reluctantly and hoping ever for a chance to return. From father to son in a long New England line the sea instinct has persevered—and no human longing is more tenacious and invincible. However long this war with its risks and its rewards may last, the New England merchant fleet will continue greatly to grow in ships and men, with the merchant fleet of the entire nation. And before the end it will have served such a purpose that it is not to be conceived that the nation will ever permit it to be driven from the seas again.



Photograph by Pacific Marine Review

THE SHIPPING BOARD'S STANDARD WOODEN SHIP





A REVIEW OF THE "HARVARD REGIMENT" BY SECRETARY BAKER

## NEW ENGLAND'S WAR SPIRIT

BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS

WHEN war with Germany was declared New England was readier for combat than some other parts of the nation. Her population was heterogeneous, but fairly well Americanized and unified. She had no sizable Germanic element to be suspected unduly or feared politically. Her Jewry was not as radical or socialistic as that of New York or Illinois, and from it since the war opened have come several able men for places on the emergency war boards. The French-Canadian population stood ready to volunteer to a considerable extent and made no such resistance to the selective draft as Quebec has seen. The Irish-Americans, little infected by Sinn Fein propaganda and disciplined for years to coöperation with leaders of the John Redmond type, like Redmond in Ireland, were anti-German and pro-Ally while still unyielding Home Rulers. Emigrants from Scotland and the eastern provinces of Canada, who for a generation have been invading New England and buttressing up her older type of civilization, naturally were belligerent and eager for an Anglo-American union against the Teuton.

As for the descendants of emigrants who landed and settled between 1620 and 1850, persons who are mainly of Anglo-Saxon-Celtic stocks, they, in considerable number, would have had the war open immediately after the sinking of the *Lusitania*. Their kinship with

Britons, their friendships with French and Italian as well as British families, their vivid realization of the part New England had played in earlier memorable fights for liberty and democracy, had put them in this mood. Possibly fear for the future counted somewhat, since a German invasion meant peril for the Northeastern States.

### INFLUENCE OF CHURCH, SCHOOL, AND PRESS

Moreover, broadly speaking and with only a few notable exceptions, all the influence of the political, ecclesiastical and educational leaders of the six States, had been cast steadily for a war, rather than peace with dishonor. Philosophers like Ladd of Yale and Royce and Perry of Harvard, speaking as idealists, had justified resistance to Germany, and aid in defeating and disciplining her. Dr. C. W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, in masterly open letters to his countrymen, had defined the issues at stake with his usual clarity, logic, and cumulative force, and he had sanctioned if not urged national action. Large-calibered leaders of the church like Bishop William Lawrence, Prof. F. G. Peabody, and George A. Gordon had defined the ethical duty of religionists and moralists, and had set in motion practical methods of conservation of the church's resources to be used were war declared.

Historians like W. Roscoe Thayer, Albert Bushnell Hart, and Geo. B. Adams, and authors like Alice Brown, Herman Hagedorn, and Katherine Lee Bates had used their arts to depict the situation in a way to arouse national pride and stir martial ardor. A Concord-born and Harvard-trained interpreter of military strategy and tactics, Frank H. Simonds, had educated his public to a fair comprehension of what might happen should the United States not join in the contest.

The call to arms found the militia of most of the States in better shape than the national average. The Mexican border campaign accounted for this in part, and besides, in Connecticut and in Massachusetts, there had been governors who had forced from legislatures aid for the State troops that would fit them for quick response should war come. In addition Governor Holcomb, of Connecticut, had put through a special State census which had provided State and federal authorities with valuable information. The Bay State's historic regiments were in such a state of preparedness that some of them were among the first troops other than "regulars" who landed in France, and they have been fighting dur-



TRAINING MARINE ENGINEERS AT MASSACHUSETTS "TECH"

(These men, who hold licenses already for steam engines on land, are learning the specialties which they will need for the management of the engine-rooms of the vessels of the new merchant marine. Some of their fellows are already at sea in coastwise or transatlantic work.)

ing the past few weeks under Pershing and Foch to stem the German tidal wave.

New England's ante-war preparations were aided much by the swiftness with which her schools, colleges and universities acted during 1914-16 in mobilization of students and institutional resources. Few and insignificant were the places of learning that had not adapted their curricula, shortened or expanded their school year, loaned teachers for expert civilian relief work or advisory service, and in a general way prepared for a possible declaration of war with all that that might imply. Hence when war came, it but formalized an informal condition. Now

there is no limit to the changes that impend and the enlistment of educators and institutions that lies ahead. A suggestive instance is the coöperative plan now in effect, by which two of Boston's best technical public schools, the finely equipped Wentworth Institute, and the scientific department of Tufts College, are teaching men picked from the drafted ranks how to aid the Government in its shipbuilding plan. The Government gathers the soldier students and transports them to the State schools and supports them, while they in turn fit themselves for teaching or



GROUP OF PROSPECTIVE DECK OFFICERS "TAKING THE SUN" AT "TECH"



LEARNING NAVIGATION IN THE "TECH" SCHOOL FOR DECK OFFICERS

for doing or for both in many lines of applied mechanics. Here the federal vocational board that happens to have this special job in hand is fortunate in having James P. Munroe, of Boston, as a member.

#### HARVARD AND YALE "STRIPPED FOR ACTION"

Both Harvard and Yale have been exceptionally generous in the enlistment of their younger alumni and upper-class undergraduates for the national service, and the two institutions have as it were stripped for action, and are running on a war-time schedule. Not only are most of the undergraduates remaining in college enlisted and getting regular training in the Reserve Officers' Training Corps, but some of them are commissioned officers, having been trained at Plattsburg, where they have had excellent training, capital to follow after such special training as the French army officers brought over by Harvard have given that institution's officer volunteers. Up to a recent date this university had sent 5612 men to the war, of whom 58 had been killed or died up to April 1, 31 of them having died prior to America's entry, being the heroes of the band of aviators and ambulance drivers who put themselves at the service of France and her Allies before the United States as a nation did. Harvard since the war opened has aided in giving special education to hundreds of men in the Naval Reserve from whom ensigns have been chosen. The School of Business Administration, not only has loaned Dean Gay, its head, to the

Washington officials for important service as an expert in formulating the trade policy during the war, but also has trained men for the ordnance and quartermaster corps. Harvard's largest service to non-Harvard men has been through its surrender of equipment, dormitories, and teachers for a school of naval wireless operators through which thousands of picked youth from all parts of the country have passed.

Yale University, in addition to sending a large proportion of her students to Plattsburg, has so shaped her home training that she leads the country in the number and ability of her artillerists. Both Washington and Paris officials have facilitated this specialization. From her scientific school faculty have gone to Washington men entrusted with special tasks of administration and investigation, a conspicuous case being that of Dean Chittenden, a world authority on nutrition and dietetics. Just as Harvard has Professor F. W. Taussig at work helping shape policies of war taxation, so Yale has had Prof. T. S. Adams.

#### "TECH'S" ACTIVITIES

The policy of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology since the war opened has been to make it informally if not formally a Technical West Point for the nation, and such it practically has been. While retaining and drilling in a R. O. T. C. group as many of her students as she could induce to get the completed education that would make them more valuable to the nation, she at

the same time has carried on special courses for navy and army men equal, and sometimes exceeding in number her own youth. Of her own sons she has sent forth 2070, of whom twenty-four have died. She will have not less than 3500 men in training this summer, a majority of them in military aeronautics, both arms of the service being represented. It has been a "Tech" professor, A. E. Burton who has organized the forty schools for Atlantic coast training deck officers of the new merchant mar-

ine. Boston's district school is at "Tech." Another professor, E. F. Miller, carries on a special engineering school for training engineers for the new merchant marine. The U. S. Signal Service Corps gets its men trained for intensive radio courses. Summing it all up, a plant unrivaled in the country is being worked to the full limit, and a maximum of service rendered at the institution itself, while 5000 alumni engineers are card indexed and ready for immediate use by the nation.

## YALE'S WAR SERVICES

BY ARTHUR T. HADLEY, PRESIDENT OF YALE UNIVERSITY

[Yale's special services to the country at this time are so varied and important that it would take a long article to describe them fully. The most striking activity, however, is the training school in artillery. President Hadley has been good enough to write for us the following memorandum which indicates the nature and extent of Yale's services. It is well known that the authorities at Washington are greatly appreciative of what President Hadley and his colleagues are doing.—THE EDITOR]

**I**N the year 1915 Yale foresaw the probability of our being drawn into the war and inquired of the War Department what form of preparation was most needed. The reply was "Training in Field Artillery." Yale students at once organized a Field Artillery Battalion, which was able to furnish the United States at the beginning of the war more than 250 reserve officers familiar with the theory and practice of artillery firing. Out of this movement grew the

course in Field Artillery which is now being pursued by more than 600 undergraduates and has received active support both from the American and French Governments. This course covers four years; but, as most students enter Yale at eighteen, enough technical work has been put into the first three years to qualify the students to become Field Artillery officers. The exercises of the course aggregate 23 hours a week for each of three years, an



FACULTY STAFF OFFICERS OF THE YALE R. O. T. C. FIRING THE FAMOUS 75'S IN ARTILLERY HALL.



average of seven hours of drill, six hours of Military Science, and ten hours of related subjects—Mathematics, Physics, French, Military History and Diplomacy, etc.

A similar course has been provided for the training of Naval officers. The amount of drill and technical work required is about the same as in the Artillery course, but the freedom of election of outside subjects is greater. About 300 undergraduates are enrolled in this course. It has had the warm approval of Secretary Daniels and the Naval authorities, who have detailed Admiral Chester to take general charge. Of 71 men recommended by the Yale Naval Training Unit, 70 have received line commissions in the navy.

The work of the Faculty has been less spectacular than that of the students, but even more essential to the work of the country. Seventy members have been given leave of absence to take important part in

war service. The duties are of the most diverse character; from the preparation of gas masks and optical instruments to the detection of submarines or the assistance of the information service of the country. Of the work done abroad, the most important single enterprise is probably the Yale Mobile Hospital Unit, which has been approved by the United States Government as a standard type of service offering maximum possibilities of efficiency. The plan of the American University Union in Europe which serves as a joint agency of American Colleges for war purposes, was drawn up by the Secretary of Yale, Mr. Stokes; and the Director, Mr. Nettleton, is a Yale professor.

The work of the graduates is shown by the following figures. The total in war service of every kind is 6,300. Of these, 4,800 are in the Army, Navy or Marine Corps, 37 have lost their lives in the service.

### Yale R. O. T. C. Undergraduate Course in Field Artillery

		"A" 3 hrs. + 1 hr. evening lecture	"B" 3 hrs. each subject	* "C" Drill 3 afternoons
First Year	FIRST TERM	Military Science Customs and Courtesies of the Service Drill Regulations Elementary Gunnery and Matériel Review	English History Modern Language (French) Mathematics (Trigonometry)	Physical Training Dismounted Instruction General Rules The Soldier Dismounted The Squad The Manual of the Pistol
	SECOND TERM	Military Science Meteorology Military Geology Mapping	English History Modern Language (French) Mathematics (Firing Data)	Physical Training Dismounted Instruction The Squad Manual of Pistol Drill of Gun Squad Gunnery Instruction
Second Year	FIRST TERM	6 hrs. + 1 hr. evening lecture Military Science Communication Drill Regulations Engineering Fire Control Hippology	Military History and Diplomacy Modern Language (French) Science (Physics)	Physical Training Mounted Instruction The Soldier Mounted Firing Instruction Use of Instruments Signalling
	SECOND TERM	Military Science Drill Regulations Duties of Cadet Officers Field Service Regulations Hygiene Motors and Ordnance	Military History and Diplomacy Modern Language Science (Physics)	Physical Training Mounted Instruction Equitation School of Driver Battery Mounted Firing Instruction Signalling
Third Year	FIRST TERM	6 hrs. + 1 hr. evening lecture Military Science Battery Administration Military Law Tactics and Coordination of Arms of Service	Governments Modern Language Science (Chemistry)	Physical Training Duties as Cadet Officers School of Battery Duties of Special Details Subcaliber Practice
	SECOND TERM	Military Science Machine Gun Trench Mortars War Pamphlets Review of all Work	Governments Modern Language Science (Chemistry)	First Term Continued

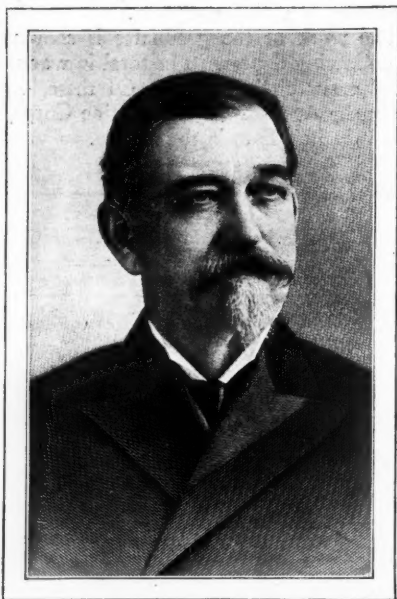
\* Daily Calisthenics, 6.45-7.20 A. M., four months.

For the men who are under twenty-one when they have completed the three years' work (and such men will be few in number) there will be a fourth year's work offered, consisting of Principles of Strategy, Map Maneuvers, Equitation, and other subjects elected from the College curriculum.

# CONNECTICUT IN THE VAN

BY HON. MARCUS H. HOLCOMB, GOVERNOR OF CONNECTICUT

[Under Governor Holcomb's leadership, Connecticut foresaw the need of preparation and took action. To-day that important manufacturing Commonwealth is a wonderful hive of industry, creating munitions and various material for war uses. In responding to our request for a brief message outlining Connecticut's war work, Governor Holcomb explains that so limited a statement can be "little more than an index digest." Nevertheless, the Governor in the following paragraphs gives a strong impression of the high spirit with which Connecticut has responded to the emergency.—THE EDITOR.]



GOVERNOR M. H. HOLCOMB, OF CONNECTICUT

**O**UR general assembly, eighteen days after diplomatic relations with Germany were severed, passed the following act:

"The Governor is authorized to cause to be taken forthwith, a census and inventory of the resources of the State, in men and materials for use in event of war, and the information thereby secured shall be placed at the service of both the State and Federal government."

Within two months thereafter, by the voluntary aid of our citizens, a complete census was taken of all male residents in the State sixteen years of age and over, the name and record of each person being tabulated on cards which were filed in our State Library, from which information can be obtained of the number of men in the State between any specified ages, with their nationality, whether

citizens or aliens, married or single, with or without dependents, occupation, etc.

This census has been in frequent use for the State and National Government, and was useful in securing a full registration for the selective draft, resulting in an enrollment of 129.3 per cent. of the federal estimate of registration for the State. It enabled the immediate furnishing to the Canadian recruiting officials of the names and residence of all Canadian, English, Scotch and Welsh residents in the State.

On March 9, 1917, our general assembly authorized the Governor to appoint a Military Emergency Board to organize a Home Guard, and within three months thereafter 10,000 men were enrolled, organized, uniformed, armed, and equipped. This included several machine-gun companies and a naval militia. Our State was the pioneer in this movement; and considering our comparative size and population I think we have the most efficient Home Guard of any State. At the request of the War Department our Home Guard for several weeks guarded the transportation lines in the State.

On March 14, 1917, our general assembly passed the following act:

"The Governor is directed to render to the Government of the United States, in the present crisis, any assistance within the power of the State; and he is authorized, either to that end or for the purpose of providing for the public safety, to organize and employ any and all resources within the State, whether of men, properties or instrumentalities, and to exercise any and all power convenient or necessary in his judgment."

The foregoing activities preceded the recognition by Congress that we were a party to the war. Since then our State furnished its quota under the selective draft, which was at least 25 per cent. more than our equitable quota, being predicated upon an as-

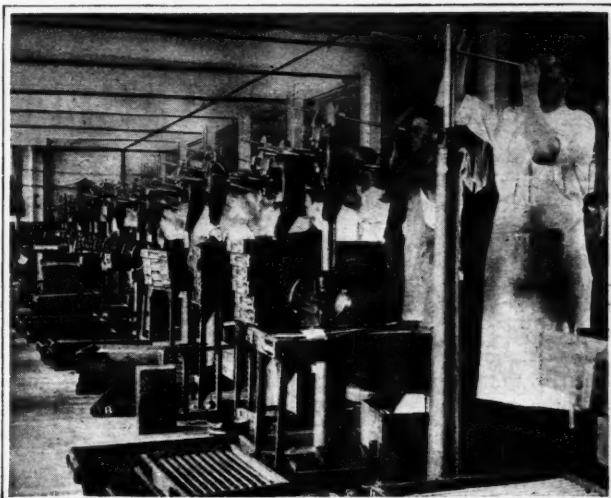
sumed population 30 per cent. more than we have in fact. But for each man thus furnished we have supplied at least two volunteers; and our soldiers were among the first to be sent to the battle-front in France.

On April 10, 1917, I appointed a committee on food supply, and on April 26 I appointed a State Council of Defense which has thoroughly organized the State to respond to all war emergencies, and has established a war board in every town to have charge of all demands upon the citizens for war purposes. This Council meets one day in each week, and several members of it and some chairmen of its sub-committees devote all of their time to matters incident to the war and are on duty every week-day at the State Capitol and about the State.

The Council has taken a census of the nurses of the State whose services are subject to call in any emergency, and has organized an automobile and auto-truck force which is available upon call.

Our people oversubscribed the State's allotment of the first and second Liberty loans. This oversubscription exceeded by nearly 25 per cent. the maximum allotment of the second loan; and ours was the only New England State to exceed its maximum allotment.

We met our quota of the Red Cross fund, subscribed three times our allotment of the Knights of Columbus fund, and \$1,402,000

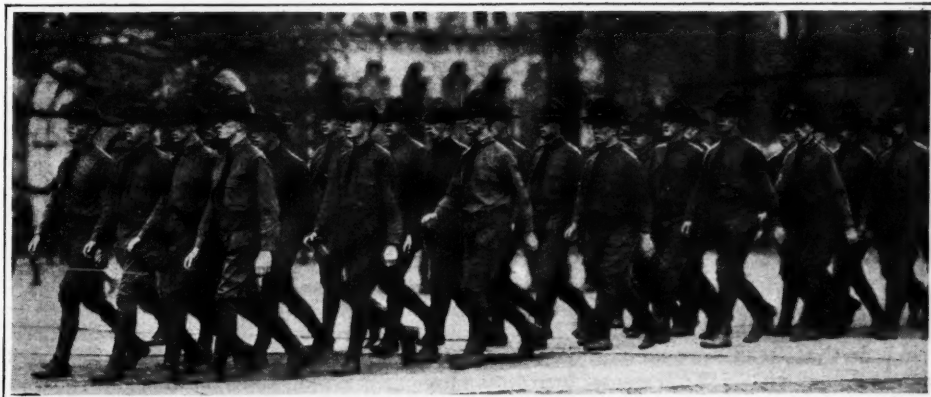


ONE OF CONNECTICUT'S BUSY RIFLE FACTORIES

to the Y. M. C. A. fund, our allotment being \$1,000,000.

This is an industrial State, and about 80 per cent. of our industries are directly or indirectly engaged in producing munitions, rifles, machine guns, clothing, and other articles used by the army; and we have at least five plants within our borders where ships and power boats are being constructed.

Much of what has been accomplished is due to the loyal service of the women of our State. The loyalty and patriotism of Connecticut labor has been a valuable asset. The prevailing sentiment is that differences between employers and employees can well be postponed until we secure a safe peace. Backing up the Government in this war comes first, all other matters being sidetracked.



ON THE YALE CAMPUS—ONE OF THE SQUADS IN THE RESERVE OFFICERS' TRAINING CORPS

# THE COAL SITUATION

BY COLIN DYMENT

(Representative of Washington State in the National Fuel Administration)

**A**FTER living through a hard winter, the United States Fuel Administration at Washington is in the midst of a hard spring, and has ahead of it a still harder summer and fall. It is in hope, however, that by the labors of spring, summer, and fall, the coal troubles of next winter may be at least alleviated.

Yet at the beginning of May there are few coal certainties for next winter. The phenomena are these:

War industries and depletion of stocks have brought about a swollen coal demand. Instead of increasing to meet the demand, production in April seemed to decrease.

Second: A list of preferred industries has been promulgated by the War Industries Board. Regardless of what other industries may have to close down, or run on scant supplies, these industries have prior claim to coal after homes and institutions.

Third: Great administrative difficulties are being encountered, a successful plan for handling coal distribution having yet to be worked out.

In considering the three items in detail, one gets contact with something more than the troubles of the Fuel Administration: with the biggest domestic troubles of the nation itself.

Production has fallen down because coal cars have not been supplied with regularity to the mines, particularly in the East and Central West. On April 15 Fuel Administrator Garfield gave out that during the first week of the present coal year, beginning April 1, bituminous coal supplies fell off 1,500,000 tons as compared with the preceding week, a loss of 14 per cent. For the week ended March 30, the same statement said that the average loss in coal production due to car shortage was 23.3 per cent. There was car shortage largely because of lack of motive power. There was lack of motive power because, among other reasons, locomotive orders in 1917 were quite unequal to the requirements of 1918; because increased loads were thrown on cars, beginning last fall, causing extensive breakdowns of locomotives that had for months needed repairs; because many locomotives were sent to Europe.

As to priorities: On April 15 the Fuel Administration announced that it would be governed in its distribution of coal and coke by the amended priorities list arranged by the War Industries Board, the operation of which "is of exceptional importance, measured by the extent of their direct or indirect contribution either toward winning the war or toward promoting the national welfare."

The same industries are, of course, to receive transportation preference as well. The semi-essential industry and the non-essential industry need therefore to look out. There may be coal for them if all goes well.

As to administration: It is easy enough to get a record of coal produced, but how to trace each ton from mouth of mine to user's furnace, and how to insure that it is going to the plant that is contributing most at the given time to winning the war—these are mighty problems. Elaborate systems of reports cost too much, irritate too much, take too long, are too hard to figure out. Simple systems of reports leave loopholes of escape.

The federal administration is being helped wonderfully by the fast-improving state organizations. Probably next winter the state organizations will do the principal work of distribution. As the federal administration depends upon the State administrators, so the latter depend upon county chairmen and city committees. So much work is being thrown upon these community men that many have had to resign, unable to give the time and stand the expense. Frequently communities, however, share in the expense. The federal administration does not have funds to maintain 4000 county offices. The local man is always a volunteer.

By following a priorities list, by organizing distribution through administrators and district representatives, by taking full advantage of a bettered car situation, the Fuel Administration hopes the diversions that brought such loss and confusion to manufacturers east of the Mississippi last winter will be in part averted.



# THE "FIRST AMERICANS" AS LOYAL CITIZENS

BY HON. CATO SELLS, COMMISSIONER OF INDIAN AFFAIRS

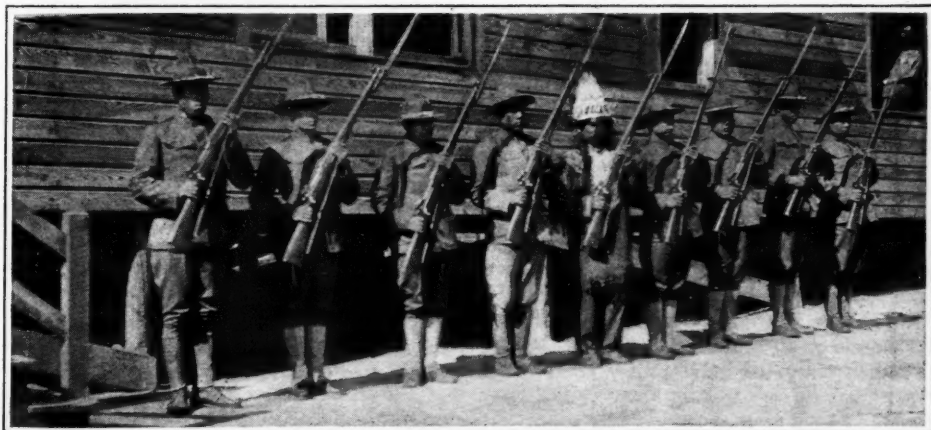
[Writing to the editor last month, the efficient head of the bureau at Washington that supervises the affairs of the American Indian, sends the following statement with these introductory words: "Dear Dr. Shaw: Complying with your request, the following is a brief statement concerning the Indians as related to the present war, touching their military service, their agricultural efforts, and the operation of the 'New Policy' for hastening their full citizenship. . . . I deeply appreciate your interest in the Indian's welfare and your facilities for drawing attention to the high points in his progress for which he is worthy of recognition and encouragement. Sincerely yours, Cato Sells, Commissioner." Judge Sells, who was appointed from Texas five years ago, took this office in a spirit of national service, and he has filled it not only with ability and intelligence, but with rare understanding and sympathy. His policy toward the Indians has been fine in its conception and practical in its working-out.—THE EDITOR]

A FEW words can scarcely suggest the progressive awakening of the native American in recent years, and notably in these fiery war-days which are fusing all American thought and purpose into an invincible, composite loyalty to our ideals and civilization. Generally speaking, the Indian is no longer a semi-barbarian. Within the last few years he has advanced greatly in health, in education, in agricultural and industrial production, in temperate living and home-making, in competition with his white neighbor, and conspicuously in his patriotic allegiance to the principles for which we entered the war.

Approximately five thousand Indians are in the training camps, or in active service on land or sea. At least 75 per cent. are

volunteers. Many of them hold commissions, and many more are non-commissioned officers. They are in every station of defensive service side by side with the white man, not as Indians, but as Americans. They are gaining by contact an education that will lead them away from tribal relations, and give them a definite comprehension of the genius of American institutions. As a class, they are manly fellows and brave soldiers, quietly responsive to military discipline. The Indians of the United States purchased of the first and second issues of Liberty Bonds nearly \$10,000,000.

During the war the Indians have increased their soil production by an average of 50 per cent. over ante-war yields. Within the last five years they have prac-



AMERICAN INDIANS, INCLUDING FORMER CARLISLE STUDENTS, DRILLING IN THE NATIONAL ARMY

tically doubled their cultivated acreage and quadrupled the value of crops and livestock produced, and sold, and still own twice the value of live stock they had in the beginning of that period.

On April 17, 1917, we announced a Declaration of Policy, which contemplated the release from governmental supervision, with all of their property, of practically all Indians having one-half or more white blood, and those with more than one-half Indian blood shown to be as capable of transacting their own affairs as the average white man, also all Indian students over twenty-one years of age who complete the full course

of instruction in the Government schools, receive diplomas and demonstrate competency.

In the work-out of the "New Policy" the Department is able to release from governmental control the "White Indians," and those who have demonstrated their capacity at the same time enlarge and intensify its interest in the Indian who really needs aid and protection. In its application thousands of Indians have been given their freedom, and while some of those released have not sustained themselves, on the whole, this advanced step has been fully justified. It is the beginning of the end of the Indian problem.

## AMERICAN INDIAN POETRY

THE publication of "The Path on the Rainbow,"<sup>1</sup> an authoritative collection of aboriginal American verse comes at a time when the Red Men have entered the world conflict and gone forth to fight side by side on a common battle front with white men for the protection of their native land. The poetry has been drawn from ancient and modern sources. None of it has any trace of European influence; the book is a real American classic.

The subject-matter of the poems is the daily doings of the tribe. The rhythms of the Red Man's lyrics are those of nature. Of the wind, the fire, the gallop of ponies, the flight of birds, and the movement of men among the tepees. All of life, every adventure from the meanest to the highest is material for song. The phrase "The Path on the Rainbow" is the Indian's definition of poetry itself. Beyond death, which to the Red Man comes to purify life that it may continue eternally, the poet sets his feet upon the Rainbow Trail, and moves into the rhythm of the Great Spirit.

The meters of the poems are determined by the genius of the tribal language. The Chippewa songs, of which records were kept on birch bark, are the most singable, and that of forest dwellers more than those of the mountain and mesa. The Indian values poetry, Mrs. Austin notes in the preface, for the reaction it produces within himself, not for its effect on others.

Indians say of our poetry that "the

white man's songs talk too much." They are able to synthesize a lifetime, or a cycle of tribal experience in a few phrases. Compare with the Biblical, "My God, my God, why hast thou forsaken me?" the Zuni cry, "Hi-ihya, naiho-o, it is finished, in beauty it is finished. Nai-ho-o."

Three "Ojibwa War Songs" sound the Red Man's clarion call to war. They are both primitive and cosmic, the simple expression of biologic necessity and the overtone of indomitable courage that allies itself with subliminal forces.

### OJIBWA WAR SONGS

#### I

Hear my voice, Birds of War!  
I prepare a feast for you to feed on;  
I see you cross the enemy's lines;  
Like you I shall go.  
I wish the swiftness of your wings;  
I wish the vengeance of your claws;  
I muster my friends;  
I follow your flight.  
Ho, you young men warriors,  
Bear your angers to the place of fighting!

#### II

From the south they came, Birds of War—  
Hark! to their passing scream.  
I wish the body of the fiercest,  
As swift, as cruel, as strong.  
I cast my body to the chance of fighting.  
Happy I shall be to lie in that place,  
In that place where the fight was,  
Beyond the enemy's line.

#### III

Here on my breast have I bled!  
See—see! these are fighting-scars!  
Mountains tremble at my yell!  
I strike for life.

<sup>1</sup>The Path on the Rainbow. Edited by George Cronyn. Preface by Mary Austin. Boni & Liveright. 328 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

# PORTO RICO'S PLACE IN THE AMERICAS

BY EMILIO J. PASARELL

[The people of Porto Rico have now been citizens of the United States for more than a year. They are loyal and contented and are making excellent progress. Mr. Pasarell, who writes the accompanying statement, shows an admirable spirit, and makes suggestions for his island and its people that are none too ambitious. They are rapidly learning English, while keeping their own Spanish language. They will come here in increasing numbers to give and to receive, and in due time our Government will take them into the diplomatic and consular services, and send them throughout the Spanish-speaking republics.—THE EDITOR.]

**P**ORTO RICO, the American island of four hundred years' civilization, is regretably unknown throughout the world. It is so small among the seas!

If we in Porto Rico stop to think about the geographical position of this densely populated island just between the two Americas—across the commercial routes that run from New York to Buenos Aires, or from Havana to La Guayra, or even across the more important route via the Panama Canal—no doubt a wonderful dream of prosperity and progress is foreseen for this our little bit of beloved mother country.

If we are proud of our historical stock and sound civilization, we also have similar feelings when under the political care of an immense country that can only be measured when we climb up to Washington, Lincoln, and Wilson, three men standing aloft like the peaks of a mountain range.

## COMMERCIAL CONDITIONS

An island of 3600 square miles and 1,250,000 inhabitants, that produces and exports to Europe and the Antilles one of the best qualities of coffee; that raises enormous sugar crops; that manufactures its own tobacco leaves into cigars fairly competing with the famous Havanas; that exports oranges and other fruits, cannot but weigh somewhat in the commerce of the United States, with which the island maintains its chief intercourse. How could commercial transactions valued for 1916 at \$106,000,000 be disdained?

Before the war, the market for our best coffee was Europe; but naturally there has been a falling off, since Austria, Germany, Italy, and France were the principal con-

sumers. In that respect we suffer the interference of war in the international commerce of Porto Rico.

As an example of the reduction of our coffee market under the terrible sway of the war calamity, let us compare the value of coffee exported in the years 1913 and 1916:

1913—49,000,000 lbs.—\$8,400,000.

1916—31,600,000 lbs.—\$4,900,000.

Sugar, on the other hand, cut short in the European markets, has gone up so marvelously that we are more than compensated for the coffee crisis. The island exported (entirely to the United States) 424,955 short tons of sugar in 1916, as against 382,700 in 1913. This was valued at \$46,000,000 in 1916 and \$27,000,000 in 1913.

This is not the normal course of our trade, the war having almost paralyzed European commerce with this country.

## ENGLISH IN THE SCHOOLS

So much in regard to commercial relations with the wide world. Now, there is a benediction from the heavens which I must praise in the name of justice: that is, the facilities offered in the public-school system to learn and master the English language.

Imagine in the near future about a third of the population of Porto Rico conveying ideas and possibly expressing themselves in their native tongue, Spanish, and their acquired tongue, English—the dominant languages in the Southern and Northern Americas. What a wide field for ambitious folks to serve as intermediaries in the consolidation of the mutual interests of Argentina and the United States!

As for myself, I am a native of the Island,

of Spanish descent. With more or less difficulty and accuracy I can speak and write some English and plenty of Spanish. I only record this fact as a typical case among thousands of Porto Ricans, in all ranks and conditions, who possess a good knowledge of the northern language.

No doubt my countrymen would serve the nation—now that Congress has bestowed upon us national citizenship—in a most honorable, dignified and loyal manner in the duties of a consul or diplomatic agent calling for tact and discretion. This would help to remove any misapprehensions rooted in the vivid imaginations of the southern peoples of Spanish America—originating in the lack of good will and a square deal of one toward the other.

#### TO MEDIATE BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA

A Porto Rican, being of Spanish descent and loyal to the United States, constitutes the ideal link between the Anglo-Americans and the Latin-Americans.

Next to the diplomatic career, there is open to us the increasing commerce between both continents in this hemisphere, with an army of commission merchants and salesmen spread all the way north and south.

At the same time, the professional teacher in Porto Rico is already being looked for to aid in the education of some of the Central American states; and this will evolve into a profitable occupation.

Our destiny is to be fulfilled in America. Several steps have been taken to widen the intellectual relations of the island with the Antilles, South America, and the United States: hundreds of students take their degrees in the American universities; hundreds of laborers and merchants go to Cuba and Santo Domingo as outposts for nearby beneficial and binding connections; thousands of boys and girls receive a common and high-school education which will enable them to fight their way through life in foreign countries or at home with prospect of success in the long run.

One of the intellectual centers in Porto Rico that might grow and develop into a Pan-American hive is the newly born University of Porto Rico. In it our young men and women take their degrees as law-

yers, pharmacists, teachers, engineers, and agronomists. The University is a nucleus for more extensive curricula where young people of neighboring countries will flock to get bi-lingual education in the liberal arts and sciences.

#### MOVING AGAINST ALCOHOL

As to the moral standard of my people, here is an instance of public sanction and opinion that will teach something to many who still believe we are in a sort of semi-savage condition. The subject of prohibition was lately brought to discussion. In a few days committees and leagues were organized throughout the island in all of the seventy municipalities and, with rare exceptions, the people are unanimously fighting against alcohol without any political mixture. Local parties are observing a neutral attitude.

Is it not an enviable position, this of Porto Rico? It is a pity that the people of the United States do not come into closer contact with our democratic land, where a laborious, peace-loving people live, cultivating the valleys and mountains or engaging in trade—a land with which nature has been lavish in wonderful scenery and in which history never recorded any bloodshed caused by revolutions; a land held for some time under the yoke of irresponsible governors; a land whose men won many a battle for the cause of liberty, with word and press, culminating in the emancipation of slaves in 1873 and the autonomous governments of 1897 and 1917, without a drop of blood being lost.

Why, then, are we not to have the place deserved in the hearts of all the peoples of both Americas, where democracy is the spirit of their institutions?

We have been under-appreciated on account of our diminutive geographical extension; but the hour will strike when Porto Rico will be an emporium, a center for all activities of civilization, north and south; from Europe, through America, to Asia.

Time will perform the miracle, to our glory, to the glory of old Spain, and to the glory of the United States.

Faith and hope, self-control and enterprise, love for all, and the role of Porto Rico in the international concert will come as a gifted recompense from God.



# THE COLLEGE WOMAN AS NURSE

BY THOMAS H. SIMPSON

"I don't think we can do enough for them . . . these men who have left everything . . . I am more thankful every day that I took up nursing, even though my bit is so very small indeed."

THESE words were written from a base hospital in France by Amabel Scharff Roberts, Vassar, 1913, who, as a member of the Presbyterian Hospital Unit of New York, was succoring British wounded at Etretat hardly a month after her own country had joined the war against the common foe. The lines from her last letter home make a plea that daily rings deeper; for nurses are now one of the pressing needs of the nation, and it is to the girl of higher education that the calling's richest rewards are offered. Miss Roberts died in January from blood poisoning contracted in her work. Her classmates are now offering in her memory four scholarships in The Training Camp for Nurses, which will be held at Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., from June 24 to September 13.

Where all the nurses are to come from, is a question that perplexes everybody intimately concerned with the care, and therefore the effectiveness of the millions of our men who are going to France. For we are going in millions, and with every million men there must be from 12,000 to 15,000 registered trained nurses. There are only 65,000 "R. N.'s" in America to-day. What will happen to our civil hospitals and to the rural and industrial health services when the nurses are all gone to the war? It takes three years to make a trained nurse; and the regular output of the nurses' training schools is hardly sufficient to meet normal civil needs.

## NO LOWERING OF STANDARDS

The problem presents itself so seriously as to have inspired a proposal in New York to draft women into the nursing profession, and the suggestion on the part of a prominent hospital head to cut a year off the training period for pupil nurses. Both suggestions met with instant and hearty disapproval from

the authorities, Professor Adelaide Nutting, of Columbia University, a leader in the profession, telegraphing from Washington:

The committee on nursing advises against any breaking down of the regular standards of nurses' training. The committee is strongly supported in this position by the . . . General Medical Board and Council of National Defense. Exception is advised only for college graduates . . .

Thus apparently an untrained or partly trained nurse is worse than no nurse at all. As a matter of fact the requirements of modern nursing are such that only the best skill and experience can meet the tests. The Army, for example, accepts nothing less than the "R. N." for military duty, and the type of woman once seen heroically flocking to France in large numbers to serve as "nurse's aids" or "brow-pressers" is now rigidly excluded as being worse than useless.

## THE APPEAL TO COLLEGE WOMEN

The college woman, however, is already in possession of much knowledge that a nurse acquires in training, and it is to take advantage of this circumstance that the Vassar "Camp" is being established under the auspices of the Council of National Defense and the Red Cross, the latter having allotted a fund of \$75,000 for operating expenses. Members of the last ten graduating classes, including that of 1918, of all standard colleges and universities are eligible as candidates for admission. The three-months' course under leading specialists is designed to enable the students to step right into practical hospital work and complete their training in two years instead of three, many well-known hospitals having arranged to receive graduates of the "Camp" on a basis that eliminates the elementary instruction and manual drudgery which the novice undergoes in the regular three-year course.

The motive is to attract as many college women as possible into nursing—a profession that they have heretofore overlooked, not-

withstanding its opportunities for distinguished patriotic and civic service, its high-salaried and dignified positions in more than fifty distinct branches of military and public-health work, and its high "matrimonial mortality."

#### THE DEMAND FOR AMERICAN NURSES

The immediate problem, however, is to mobilize the present nursing resources of the country. In April, 19,000 "R. N.'s" had been enrolled in the Red Cross, and an appeal was about to be issued for 35,000 more. They'll be ready all right—with their long blue red-lined capes all pressed and their little black bags tightly packed—when the wire from Washington brings the word to abandon comfortable jobs and "proceed at once" to an Atlantic port to join some embarking unit of the second million. For the girls are not being left behind in this war.

American nurses are staffing the hospitals of our Allies, who continually ask for more of them. There are 5000 of our R. N.'s in military hospitals, and among the refugees in France, Italy, Rumania and Macedonia, saving wounded men and battling for the men's wives and children against pestilence and famine. Hardly a ship that leaves our ports but lists a contingent of nurses among her passengers. Who remain to serve the mother and baby in the remote farmstead and the swarming tenement, the sick and crippled in hospital and home, the maimed in flood and wreck and fire; to complement the overworked surgeon whose colleagues are in the army; to spread the gospel of public health against a death rate that always tends to rise when food and fuel are scarce and prices high? The answer is, the girls in training, and the Red Cross wants "just as many as it can get" to enter the nursing schools.

To the graduate of 1918 it is a chance for immediate service with the colors; for neither the high-school girl who enters a three-year training course nor the collegiate alumna who enters a two-year course will have to wait for her opportunity to serve. On the very first day of her training she starts helping in some way to care for the patients, thus adding her "bit" to the mighty sum of the nation's effort. It is expected that practically all first-class civil hospitals will receive at least some military cases; and, moreover, the pupil nurses as they become

proficient will release more and more graduate nurses for service in the cantonments or at the front. No amount of "training" in agricultural and other forms of heavy work for which women are in the main unfitted could equal this kind of training in its patriotic value.

#### CONDITIONS OF TRAINING

To be admitted to the Vassar Camp a woman must be in good health and between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one, approximately. A nominal fee of \$95 provides for everything, and many scholarships are being offered by the Alumna who are coöperating with special committees of other colleges all over the country, in recruiting the students. There are, incidentally, other avenues by which a college woman can become a nurse in a shorter period than that of three years. A number of well-known hospital-training schools have readjusted their programs to meet the present crisis, and have arranged to give credit of from six to nine months, and in a few cases a full year. There is no shorter course than three years for girls who have not been through college, and any effort to lower this standard will be desperately resisted by the medical and nursing authorities. In the majority of schools the student nurse is under no expense for tuition, board, lodging, laundry, or uniform; and many schools in providing for larger classes have arranged the hours of study so that pupil nurses may still live in their own homes.

At all events there are now many wide gateways through which the young women of America may readily enter the form of service in which their country needs them most. Since Florence Nightingale and her little band of workers cleansed the Crimean cesspools that were called hospitals, reducing the death rate from fifty out of a hundred to four or five, many of the noblest spirits ever born have passed through these portals to a life intimate with suffering and tragedy, but rich in both spiritual and material rewards. To-day the world needs trained nurses as never before. Big opportunities await the patriotic, ambitious girls and women who are capable of meeting the emergency—in civil and military hospitals, in the public-health battle to maintain national efficiency, and in the reconstruction of men and things that will go on for years after the war.

# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## AMERICAN MAGAZINES AFTER A YEAR OF WAR

**A** TWELVEMONTH after America's entrance into the great world conflict finds the majority of the American monthlies and quarterlies devoting relatively less space than the newspapers to war topics, but naturally giving more prominence to such topics than before the fateful sixth of April, 1917. The April and May issues of the *Century Magazine*, for example, contain half a dozen articles of importance on various phases of the war and resulting problems. These are: "The Man in the National Army," by Henry Rood; "A General Staff for Peace," by Glenn Frank; "New Ideals for Peace," by Frederic C. Howe; "The Physician and the War," by Frederick Peterson, M. D.; "Government by Impression," by David Lawrence; and "The War-Whirl in Washington," by Frank Ward O'Malley.

Concrete and picturesque war activities are represented in *Scribner's* by Raymond B. Fosdick, who wrote on "Fit for Fighting—And After"; by Captain R. Hugh Knyvett, of the Australian Army, who contributed to the April and May numbers stories of his adventures in No Man's Land; by Dr. C. L. Gibson, the New York surgeon, who wrote on "Caring for American Wounded in France," and by the letters of Edmond Genet, the first American aviator to fall while flying the Stars and Stripes. The series of articles by Winston Churchill, the novelist, entitled "A Traveler in War Time," was concluded in the April number. These articles dealt with England and France under war-time conditions, and the concluding articles especially laid emphasis on the wonderfully efficient system of transport and supplies built up by the British Government.

In *Harper's* for April, Edward Hungerford describes "The Business of Clothing the Army"; Mr. Frederic C. Howe con-

tributes a thought-provoking article on the control of the Mediterranean as the true crux of the war; George Abel Schreiner writes on "Threads by Which Nations Hang." The most conspicuous feature of the May number is the first of a series of articles giving "Impressions of the Kaiser," by Dr. David Jayne Hill, former American Ambassador to Germany. The story of Alsace-Lorraine, the "Lost Provinces," is told by the Abbé Klein, illustrated with historic documents.

The May *Atlantic* has articles on "The German Outlook for Parliamentary Government," by A. B. McLaren; "The Pacifist at War," by Henry Rutgers Marshall; "Russian Sidelights," by Arthur Ruhl; "Prussian Manners," by C. Journelle; "Ordinary Seamen, U. S. N." (a description of the Great Lakes Naval Training Station), by Joseph Husband; and the fifth of a series of war-adventure stories related by James Norman Hall.

In addition to Colonel Harvey's forceful editorials on the developments of the month, the *North American Review* for April presents the following: "The Real Secret Diplomacy," by G. K. Chesterton; "War Loans versus Business as Usual," by Benjamin Strong; "The President and Public Opinion," by Fabian Franklin; "National Self-Determination," by Henri Lambert; "What We Owe to Socialist Russia," by Charles Johnston; and "The Future of International Law," by E. S. Roscoe. Important features of the May number are: "A New Interpretation of Anglo-American Relations," by H. E. Barnes; "A Character Sketch of Clémenceau," by Graham S. Stuart, and "The Strategic Retreat of the German Language Press," by C. W. Park.

Following are the titles of the more important articles in the current number of the *Yale Review*: "The Strategy That Will

withstanding its opportunities for distinguished patriotic and civic service, its high-salaried and dignified positions in more than fifty distinct branches of military and public-health work, and its high "matrimonial mortality."

#### THE DEMAND FOR AMERICAN NURSES

The immediate problem, however, is to mobilize the present nursing resources of the country. In April, 19,000 "R. N.'s" had been enrolled in the Red Cross, and an appeal was about to be issued for 35,000 more. They'll be ready all right—with their long blue red-lined capes all pressed and their little black bags tightly packed—when the wire from Washington brings the word to abandon comfortable jobs and "proceed at once" to an Atlantic port to join some embarking unit of the second million. For the girls are not being left behind in this war.

American nurses are staffing the hospitals of our Allies, who continually ask for more of them. There are 5000 of our R. N.'s in military hospitals, and among the refugees in France, Italy, Rumania and Macedonia, saving wounded men and battling for the men's wives and children against pestilence and famine. Hardly a ship that leaves our ports but lists a contingent of nurses among her passengers. Who remain to serve the mother and baby in the remote farmstead and the swarming tenement, the sick and crippled in hospital and home, the maimed in flood and wreck and fire; to complement the overworked surgeon whose colleagues are in the army; to spread the gospel of public health against a death rate that always tends to rise when food and fuel are scarce and prices high? The answer is, the girls in training, and the Red Cross wants "just as many as it can get" to enter the nursing schools.

To the graduate of 1918 it is a chance for immediate service with the colors; for neither the high-school girl who enters a three-year training course nor the collegiate alumna who enters a two-year course will have to wait for her opportunity to serve. On the very first day of her training she starts helping in some way to care for the patients, thus adding her "bit" to the mighty sum of the nation's effort. It is expected that practically all first-class civil hospitals will receive at least some military cases; and, moreover, the pupil nurses as they become

proficient will release more and more graduate nurses for service in the cantonments or at the front. No amount of "training" in agricultural and other forms of heavy work for which women are in the main unfitted could equal this kind of training in its patriotic value.

#### CONDITIONS OF TRAINING

To be admitted to the Vassar Camp a woman must be in good health and between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one, approximately. A nominal fee of \$95 provides for everything, and many scholarships are being offered by the Alumna who are coöperating with special committees of other colleges all over the country, in recruiting the students. There are, incidentally, other avenues by which a college woman can become a nurse in a shorter period than that of three years. A number of well-known hospital-training schools have readjusted their programs to meet the present crisis, and have arranged to give credit of from six to nine months, and in a few cases a full year. There is no shorter course than three years for girls who have not been through college, and any effort to lower this standard will be desperately resisted by the medical and nursing authorities. In the majority of schools the student nurse is under no expense for tuition, board, lodging, laundry, or uniform; and many schools in providing for larger classes have arranged the hours of study so that pupil nurses may still live in their own homes.

At all events there are now many wide gateways through which the young women of America may readily enter the form of service in which their country needs them most. Since Florence Nightingale and her little band of workers cleansed the Crimean cesspools that were called hospitals, reducing the death rate from fifty out of a hundred to four or five, many of the noblest spirits ever born have passed through these portals to a life intimate with suffering and tragedy, but rich in both spiritual and material rewards. To-day the world needs trained nurses as never before. Big opportunities await the patriotic, ambitious girls and women who are capable of meeting the emergency—in civil and military hospitals, in the public-health battle to maintain national efficiency, and in the reconstruction of men and things that will go on for years after the war.



# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## AMERICAN MAGAZINES AFTER A YEAR OF WAR

A TWELVEMONTH after America's entrance into the great world conflict finds the majority of the American monthlies and quarterlies devoting relatively less space than the newspapers to war topics, but naturally giving more prominence to such topics than before the fateful sixth of April, 1917. The April and May issues of the *Century Magazine*, for example, contain half a dozen articles of importance on various phases of the war and resulting problems. These are: "The Man in the National Army," by Henry Rood; "A General Staff for Peace," by Glenn Frank; "New Ideals for Peace," by Frederic C. Howe; "The Physician and the War," by Frederick Peterson, M. D.; "Government by Impression," by David Lawrence; and "The War-Whirl in Washington," by Frank Ward O'Malley.

Concrete and picturesque war activities are represented in *Scribner's* by Raymond B. Fosdick, who wrote on "Fit for Fighting—And After"; by Captain R. Hugh Knyvett, of the Australian Army, who contributed to the April and May numbers stories of his adventures in No Man's Land; by Dr. C. L. Gibson, the New York surgeon, who wrote on "Caring for American Wounded in France," and by the letters of Edmond Genet, the first American aviator to fall while flying the Stars and Stripes. The series of articles by Winston Churchill, the novelist, entitled "A Traveler in War Time," was concluded in the April number. These articles dealt with England and France under war-time conditions, and the concluding articles especially laid emphasis on the wonderfully efficient system of transport and supplies built up by the British Government.

In *Harper's* for April, Edward Hungerford describes "The Business of Clothing the Army"; Mr. Frederic C. Howe con-

tributes a thought-provoking article on the control of the Mediterranean as the true crux of the war; George Abel Schreiner writes on "Threads by Which Nations Hang." The most conspicuous feature of the May number is the first of a series of articles giving "Impressions of the Kaiser," by Dr. David Jayne Hill, former American Ambassador to Germany. The story of Alsace-Lorraine, the "Lost Provinces," is told by the Abbé Klein, illustrated with historic documents.

The May *Atlantic* has articles on "The German Outlook for Parliamentary Government," by A. B. McLaren; "The Pacifist at War," by Henry Rutgers Marshall; "Russian Sidelights," by Arthur Ruhl; "Prussian Manners," by C. Journelle; "Ordinary Seamen, U. S. N." (a description of the Great Lakes Naval Training Station), by Joseph Husband; and the fifth of a series of war-adventure stories related by James Norman Hall.

In addition to Colonel Harvey's forceful editorials on the developments of the month, the *North American Review* for April presents the following: "The Real Secret Diplomacy," by G. K. Chesterton; "War Loans versus Business as Usual," by Benjamin Strong; "The President and Public Opinion," by Fabian Franklin; "National Self-Determination," by Henri Lambert; "What We Owe to Socialist Russia," by Charles Johnston; and "The Future of International Law," by E. S. Roscoe. Important features of the May number are: "A New Interpretation of Anglo-American Relations," by H. E. Barnes; "A Character Sketch of Clémenceau," by Graham S. Stuart, and "The Strategic Retreat of the German Language Press," by C. W. Park.

Following are the titles of the more important articles in the current number of the *Yale Review*: "The Strategy That Will

Win the War," by Émile Mayer; "The Submarine," by William O. Stevens; "Scandinavian Neutrality," by Maurice Francis Egan; "The Chemical Warfare," by Julius Stieglitz; "Good Temper in the Present Crisis," by L. P. Jacks, and "German Intrigues in Persia," by A. C. Edwards.

In the *Unpopular Review* there are articles (unsigned, according to the custom of

this journal) entitled, "Why America Lags," "The Problem of Alsace-Lorraine," "The Adventure of the Training Camp," "Turkey Under Germany's Tutelage," "Food Conservation and the Women," "Some Reflections on Revolution," and "Durchhalten!" In the same number the editor expresses his views on "Hasty War Marriages."

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IN the *Fortnightly* and the *Contemporary*, the great British Reform Act of 1918 has been discussed at length. One writer, Mr. J. A. Marriott, has gone so far as to suggest in the *Fortnightly* that "democracy" and "representative government," so far from being interchangeable terms, as has often been assumed by English publicists, are really quite distinct ideas, and Swiss authorities have even gone so far as to define "democracy" as the antithesis of representative government. To them true democracy is not indirect or representative, but direct. So Mr. Marriott raises the question whether the Reform Act of 1918 is not "the last expiring effort to maintain a system hallowed in this country by long tradition, but effete and out of date."

Mr. W. H. Dickenson, writing in the *Contemporary*, is impressed by the essential radicalism of the main provisions of the Reform Act, of which he says:

In its inclusion of women, its extension to the military and naval forces, its simplification of the franchise, and its multifarious provisions for facilitating the exercise of political rights, it constitutes in itself a great revolution—a revolution effected without bloodshed or disturbance; brought about solely by a general acceptance of the fundamental principle of democracy, that the government of the people must rest upon the willing consent of all the people.

Dr. Seton-Watson undertakes to show in the *Contemporary* that a federal solution of the Austro-Hungarian problem is rendered hopeless by the insistence on Dualism of the German-Magyar combination which is now in power. He regards it as only an accident that Russia has collapsed earlier than Austria-Hungary.

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In the same review Sir William Ramsay examines the changes that have transformed Germany within the last fifty years, concluding that the whole nation, Socialists as much as other parties, had come to regard war with England as a necessary step in national development.

A writer in the *New Europe* on the desperate situation of Rumania says that it is hard to see how any sane partisan of the Allied cause could object to Rumania making any such necessary arrangements as would save her from destruction.

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## "WE ARE READY NOW"—AMERICAN DESTROYERS ON DUTY

AMERICANS should be gratified, says Captain H. A. Sailor, writing in *Sea Power*, for April, by the cordial expression of good will on the part of Sir Eric Geddes, First Lord of the British Admiralty, who recently said in Parliament:

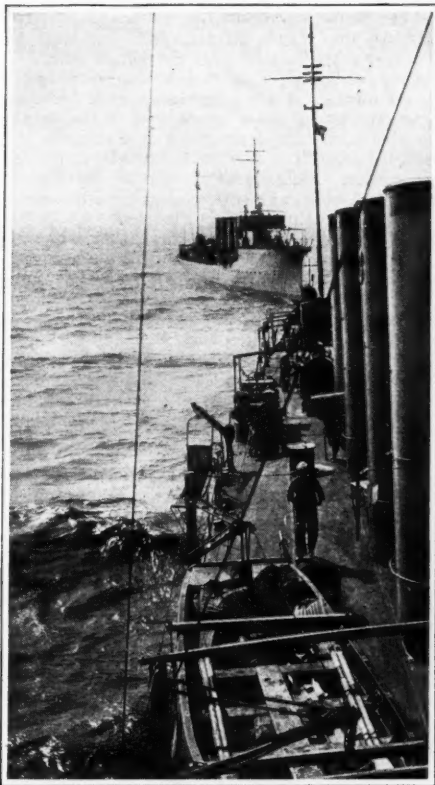
It is perhaps natural that the coöperation between ourselves and the United States should be extremely close. I wish in behalf of myself and my colleagues publicly to pay tribute to the whole-hearted and generous devotion to the prosecution of the war which has governed the actions of every representative of the United States.

We have the advantage of constant consultations with Admiral Sims, who attends our daily staff conferences. We have American officers working in various sections of the British Admiralty on exactly the same footing as British officers. The coöperation between the two nations is as nearly complete as possible.

On the other hand, an American naval officer who recently returned from destroyer duty in European waters says: "If the British could, they would make Admiral Sims a peer of the realm, and if we naval officers could, we would transfer Admiral Bayly to our own service."

It was to Admiral Bayly that our destroyer flotilla officers made the now historic reply on arrival in British waters, "We are ready now." No wonder this prompt response made a favorable impression on the Admiral and the flotilla promptly "made good" in two ways, says Captain Sailor. In the first place, our vessels had greater fuel oil capacity than the British destroyers and so could keep the sea longer and carry their patrol further out into the Atlantic. In the second place, on three separate occasions the Admiral ordered some of our boats to meet an east-bound ship at an appointed latitude and longitude far out at sea, at an hour slightly before daylight, and to "pick her up" without the use of wireless. On the first occasion, the vessels met eleven minutes before the hour fixed; the second ship was found nine minutes in advance and the third was picked up six minutes before the pre-arranged time. Signals of congratulation for "a mission well executed" were made by Admiral Bayly.

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Photograph by Neeser (from *Sea Power*)

ON BOARD AN AMERICAN DESTROYER OF THE FLOTILLA NOW IN THE WAR ZONE

(These narrow-decked vessels often have a roll of 15 degrees, even in quiet waters)

The merchant officer always likes plenty of sea room and doesn't enjoy being huddled into a bunch with a group of other ships. Now a convoy is made up of all sorts and conditions of ships with varying speeds and with their officers speaking all known languages and many unknown ones. They have not been drilled, but the minute the convoy reaches the war zone all ships are supposed to zigzag on signal from the leaders. Of course they are running without lights and making the best speed they can, and all hands are strung up and nervous. The formation is apt to be mob-like, for the officers are not accustomed to working together. Everyone is looking for submarines and no one is taking any chances. So the watch will see something peculiar. It may be a young whale, or a blackfish, or even a porpoise, but whatever it is it leaves a phosphorescent wake, so over goes the helm and the ship steams as fast as she can, one way or the other.

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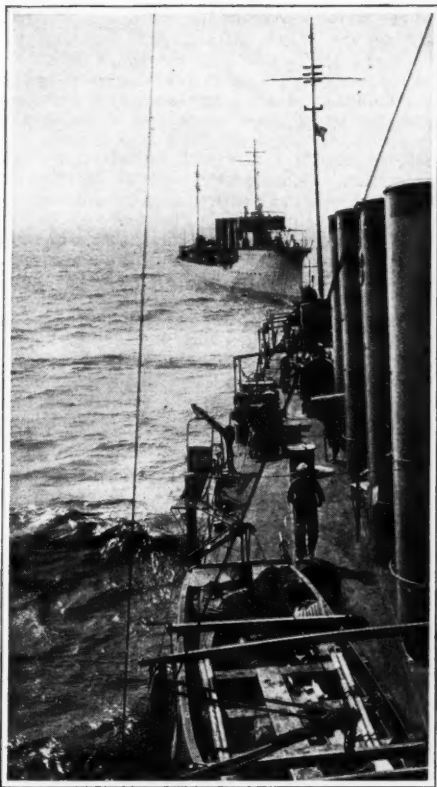
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the outside of the group, and the only safety is constant watchfulness. Their men do not get buffaloeed by a porpoise, but do not relish having some big merchantman come charging at them out of the darkness. Consequently there have been a number of collisions, but our destroyers are tough and can stand a good deal of battering. But it is hard on the watch officers, and they and the destroyer crews are on edge the whole time.

An added danger is that a destroyer has to have a number of depth bombs on deck and these sometimes go off from concussion if the ship is in collision, for the depth bomb is a sensitive and quick-tempered creature and explodes on slight provocation. Consequently some of the damage that our vessels have suffered has been due to the explosion of their own depth bombs.

One difficulty that was experienced when the convoy system was first instituted was that the merchant ships' firemen could not be kept working at their best through the war zone. When a ship first gets into the dangerous area her speed is apt to pick up. A ten-knot ship may be able to steam nearly twelve, for the men are working on their nerve. But after a day in the zone, with the zigzagging and constant strain, and nothing happening, the men get tired, ease down, and the ten-knot ship may slow up to eight knots. Now

the speed of a convoy is the speed of the slowest ship, so that one vessel will detain all the others. One night one of our best destroyermen was shepherding the rear of a convoy and trying to speed up the laggards, for ships were beginning to sag astern and the group was stretching out dangerously long. It was a black night, so he decided on an experiment. As far as he knew, there were no U-boats within a thousand miles, but he opened up with all his guns and had a fine little naval battle all by himself. By the time he had finished it the entire convoy was going four knots faster. Nowadays a convoy may slow down by daylight, but an imaginary battle or two at night keeps its speed up.

All who have returned from destroyer duty, says Captain Sailor, are enthusiastic over the perfect harmony existing between the British service and the American. British officers have turned over their signal books to their American colleagues and the British codes are used by the Americans. American sailors are glad to serve under such a commander as Admiral Sir Lewis Bayly.

## JAPAN'S MILITARY COÖPERATION

IN the *Correspondant* (Paris) L. Lemoine presents the following analysis of Japanese public opinion with regard to furnishing military aid to the Allies.

The question, "When will Japan come to the aid of the Allies?" no doubt originated in press appeals for such assistance, desire for which was strengthened by knowledge of the splendid military record of Japan in China and against Russia. The entrance of the United States into the war created a feeling that Japan should offer a similar proof of unselfish solidarity with the Allies.

Lemoine warns against judging the question without considering the Japanese standpoint set forth in the press of that country.

On May 24, 1917, came the surprising news that a fleet of Japanese cruisers and destroyers had been operating in the Mediterranean for nearly two months. This was a significant matter in view of popular sentiment against sending aid overseas. An explanation is found in the Japanese press.

The treaty of London (September 27, '05) between England and Japan was based on the mutual protection of Oriental, Asiatic, and Indian interests. German aggression in Belgium, resulting in English intervention, drew Japan into the war to protect English and Japanese interests in the Far

East. The German posts, forced on China in 1895, were not forgotten by Japan; on November 7, '14, the fortress of Kiao-Chau was restored to Japanese influence, the German concession of Chou-Tong was occupied by Japanese troops, as well as the railway from Tsing-tao to Tsi-fou. An allied fleet took German possessions in Polynesia, Jalint, the Marinnnes, Marshall, and the Caroline group.

Such duties performed, Japan apparently terminated its rôle of belligerent, though it continued to furnish supplies and financial aid. The fleet patrolled the Indian Ocean until February, 1917, when Admiral Sato extended Japan's sphere of influence by taking a fleet of cruisers and destroyers to the Mediterranean.

Early in the war public opinion in Japan was against sending aid to Europe for the following reasons:

- (1) The necessity of maintaining peace in China (as guaranteed).
- (2) The overwhelming expense.
- (3) The difficulty of transport and sustenance.
- (4) The danger of imperilling after-war relations with Germany.

At this point the writer points out the strong hold German methods had taken of Japanese imagination, so that some professors

declared the disappearance of German *kultur* would gravely prejudice world civilization!

In April, 1916, Baron Dem, member of the Chamber (of Paris) stated that the Anglo-Japanese treaty called for the protection of common Asiatic interests *only*. The *Asahi* (May 26, '17) deplored the secret sending of a fleet to the Mediterranean, while M. Osaki Yukio, former mayor of Tokio and deputy of Mie-Keu, protested to the Terauchi cabinet, and at Kobi (October 23, '17), warned against a request for troops by England, based on this precedent.

Newspapers, such as the *Yominuri*, the *Kokomi*, and the *Jiji-Shimpo*, favored the action taken, the *Hochi* stating that since the entrance of the United States into the war Japan must take a more active part, if it was to be properly recognized at the final peace conferences.

The *Yominuri* challenged the statement of the *Asahi* that Japan must receive compensation before giving aid, pointing out the baseness of such action and the necessity of taking a leading part in this world event. *Jiji-Shimpo* (July 8, '17) said, "Let those who wish to sell Japan's services over the counter be ashamed!"

The *Seoul Press* (June 17) pointed out the absolute necessity of crushing German militarism or suffering the weight of the iron hand.

Baron Togo Yasushi, after a trip to Russia, begged his fellow-countrymen (June 27, '17) to take a more active part in these ways:

- (1) To assume an attitude worthy of Japan.
- (2) To increase supplies of all kinds, including money.
- (3) To send an army to the front.
- (4) To supply ships, medicines and ambulances.

To this view the *Yorozu* (July 3, '17) also subscribed, demanding for what reason it should be opposed. The principal official journal, *Kokomi* (August 9, '17) warned against commercialism. The *Jiji-Shimpo*, sounding the same note, cited the United States as an example of self-sacrifice and patriotism.

Must one decide that such utterances represent a general desire to furnish an army? In September, 1917, this was evidently not the case. The *Japan Times* (Sept. 16, '17) asked whether enough sacrifices had not been made by sending the fleet, while the *Nichi-Nichi* (September 20) doubted the utility of sending troops even were it possible, but

suggested that aid in the form of transportation and supplies were most desirable from all standpoints. The *Jiji-Shimpo* (September 23) and the *Yominuri* (September 22) both held the same opinion, adding that every country should consider and provide its best instrumentalities to win the war. M. Shado, minister of finance (November 15, '17), expressed the same opinion.

Japanese merchant tonnage is, then, the most valuable aid that country can furnish the Allies to-day. Statistics of July, 1917, show that Japan possessed 2112 ships of 1,796,544 tonnage (454 being over 1000 tons). Since the beginning of the war 222 ships (723,161 tons) were chartered by foreigners; 32 ships (133,761 tons) were sold to Americans and Europeans between January and July. In addition the great subsidized companies maintained a European and Pacific service, together with 33 ships operated by Japanese unsubsidized companies.

The *Jibussgô no Nihon* of November stated that at the beginning of the war Japan possessed only nine shipyards capable of building ships over 1000 tons, while the forty navy yards had a capacity of 400,000 tons a year. Construction in 1916, however, amounted to but 160,000 tons—in 1917 it may have reached 300,000 tons. Of this tonnage 70 per cent. was furnished to the Allies.

Early last month it was announced at Washington that more than 250,000 tons of shipping constructed in Japan will soon be in the transatlantic service carrying troops, food, and munitions to France. Of this total about thirty vessels averaging 5000 tons each will fly the Japanese flag. It is also announced that the United States Government had arranged for new construction in Japan which would aggregate another 200,000 tons.

The United States on its part has agreed to furnish Japan with steel plates, so that Japan's building program will not be interrupted. The first shipment of steel plates will total 100,000 tons, sufficient for the construction of 300,000 tons of shipping.

The Allies should use Japan's aid as it can best be supplied, which at present means the furnishing of materials, manufactures, food, munitions, *rather than men*. Should the time come when armies are required—either because the seat of war moves to the East or because military aid is clearly necessary—Japan will undoubtedly be prepared to offer them.

## WHY GERMANY DREADS AN "AUSTRIAN" SOLUTION OF THE POLISH QUESTION

DISCUSSION of the Polish question in the press has recently been much enlivened both through the peace negotiations at Brest-Litovsk and through the program declarations regarding the future of Poland that were made in Paris, Rome, London, and Washington.

The journals of the German Empire discuss the so-called "Austrian solution" of the Polish question, and some of them are even grieved at the prospect of the calamity this kind of solution would bring to Germany. To show the misfortune for Germany and Austria lying in such an outcome is the endeavor especially of Emil Ludwig, who writes thus in the Berlin *Vossische Zeitung*:

Such a solution would be a harm to Germany and a danger to Austria. It would realize the paradox the presage of which was the fatal manifesto of November 5, 1916, proclaiming Polish self-government and carrying with it in consequence the exclusion of Galicia. In case of the carrying out of this project, the Hapsburgs would gain Poland, Austria would lose Galicia, and Hungary would have to look on at a menace to the state dualism. And who, in such conditions—save the Germans—would keep faith to the old form of the Austrian state?

Would it be the Bohemians, whose separatist manifestoes are distinguished only by the sincerity from similar aims of the other Slavonic nations? Would it be the Hungarians, who do not want to have as king the Austrian Emperor? Would it be the Poles, who relying on the example of their brothers in Prussia quite naturally now aim at union with their free compatriots of Russian Poland? Would it be the Ruthenians, whose form of civilization and of confession is remote from Poland and draws them to the great Ukrainian republic?

The Polish-baiting *Grenzbote* likewise indulges in reflections on the trials experienced up to the present by Austria and Germany in the elaboration of the Polish problem:

The most advantageous solution of the Polish question would be the annexation of the zone of German occupation, together with Warsaw, to Germany and of the zone of Austrian occupation, together with Lublin, to Austria-Hungary. But, promising Poland her union, on November 5, 1916, we entered on an entirely different road. The hope of forming a Polish army for us has brought merely disillusion. Now again, there is talk of a union of Galicia with Poland, the king of which should be the Austrian Emperor. This union of Poland with the monarchy of the Hapsburgs would be looser than the union of Austria with Hungary.

Poland would in this manner set an example fit to follow to the Hungarians, who would undoubtedly take advantage of this lesson. Poland would also stimulate the aspirations of the Bohemians and Croats and would loosen the whole Austro-Hungarian monarchy, as the nationalistic principle would gain ascendancy over the state. He that should allow Poland to enter the state union of Austro-Hungary would drive a wedge that would burst the monarchy. The union of Poland with Austria would, upon the whole, be such an event as Germany could agree to only after a grievous disaster. Never can it be the result of victory.

The Paris *Temps* compares the program of the foreign policy of France presented in the memorable speech, on December 28, 1917, of M. Pichon, Minister of Foreign Affairs, with the conditions of peace presented by the Central Powers at Brest-Litovsk by Count Czernin, Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister:

The program of the Central Powers still contains many denials of justice. For, what is this allusion to the "right of minorities"—so cruelly slighted in "Mitteleuropa,"—but a pretext to interfere with the internal affairs of Belgium, to protect, as it were, the Flemings, who, in reality, have a horror of a German protectorate? What is this refusal to indemnify the invaded countries, which they have methodically pillaged? What is this pretension of re-establishing "a regular economic traffic" between Germany, enriched by so much booty, and the nations she refuses to indemnify, after having stripped them? What is this absolute silence with which the Austro-Germans have endeavored to bury the Polish question,—totschweigen it, as they say?

We congratulate M. Pichon on having broken the silence and on having proclaimed that the Allies desire to bring Poland to life again, "one, independent, indivisible, with all the guaranties for her free political, economic, and military development and all the consequences that may result therefrom." This integral resurrection of Poland is an essential condition of equilibrium and peace.

A paragraph of the treaty of armistice, signed on December 15 at Brest-Litovsk, between Russia and the Central Empires that is of interest, as it seems not to be known here, was criticized broadly by the *Temps* of another issue. Namely, Article IVth of this treaty, prescribing the conditions of the armistice, is directed against the Poles in the Russian army, in particular against the Polish forces at the front. For these troops there was fixed a special line of demarcation, or



boundary, beyond which they were not to be allowed to pass under pain of arrest by the Austro-German troops and under pain of being held for violating this regulation as prisoners of war to the moment of the conclusion of peace or the denunciation of the armistice. Of this treaty of armistice the *Temps* speaks thus:

It contains an exceptional measure against the Poles fighting in the Russian army. Those among them who should wish to take advantage of the armistice in order to return to their homes—as many of the Russian soldiers do,—will be made prisoners by the Austro-Germans, who occupy their country. One divines what kind of liberty our enemies purpose to leave to Poland. History will note that Germany, in 1917, inaugurating her relations with revolutionary Russia, began with a stipulation directed against the Poles, exactly as Bismarck inaugurated his relations with Russia with the convention of February 8, 1863, by which it was decreed that: The heads

of the Russian and Prussian detachments shall be authorized to aid one another and in case of need, to cross the frontier in order to pursue the rebels that should pass from one country to the other." The "rebels" that at that time were trapped, the exiles that to-day are threatened with arrest, are always the Poles.

Appealing fervently to the Allied governments to emphasize that the cause of Poland lies at their heart, the *Temps* declares in conclusion:

After this armistice there is no more any pretext that the Kingdom of Poland may be subjected to two military dictatorships,—the one Prussian, the other Austro-Hungarian. It is necessary that the population be able to choose, freely, the régime under which it wants to live. No one can restore validly the Russian frontier before Poland speaks in this matter. We demand that the Allies, constituting themselves the advocates of Poland, should solemnly reserve her rights.

## A NEW INDUSTRIAL ITALY

A N unlooked-for and welcome picture of the effect of the war in stimulating and speeding up Italian industries is furnished by Francesco Chiesa in his monthly Italian letter to the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne). After speaking of Italy's new soul, tempered in the dreadful fires of her reverses last autumn, he says:

What few persons are as yet aware of is a powerful industrial Italy of manifold activities. An excellent idea of this may be obtained by even a cursory glance at a number of the interesting periodicals published at Milan under the title of *The Illustrated Italian Industry*. The war production, enormous even before last autumn, increased astonishingly during the final months of the year, after the lamentable events of October had proved the necessity of calling on all available sources.

Another journal, the *Tribuna*, is quoted as stating that practically all the arms and munitions on the Italian front were of national manufacture, only one and a half per cent. being of foreign origin, while Italy provided her allies with a larger amount than she herself received from foreign sources. The *Tribuna* declares further:

After providing for her own military requirements, Italy has taken up the task of aiding her allies also, though these were perhaps better provided than ourselves, who had almost no established industries. But now steel plants have sprung up as if by magic, turning out supplies which were previously lacked by us; for example,

we have been making steel molds more resistant than the famous Austrian molds, as well as electro-magnets, reflectors, agricultural machines, apparatus of precision, telemeters, tools, and apparatus of various sorts, all products of the best quality and furnished in large quantities to our allies likewise.

The production of our aeroplane factories has attained really surprising proportions—a single plant in Lombardy was ready last June to deliver twenty-five machines per day.

Mr. Chiesa assures us that besides these war-furnishing activities, there are feverish preparations for industrial enterprises after the coming of peace, observing that Italy will have no lack either of workmen, of materials, or of the spirit of enterprise. He closes by exhorting the Italians to mend their ways in certain respects:

It is to be hoped that the severe trials of the war will also develop among the Italians that spirit of order and of discipline which ought to serve not only to produce intensive labor both in factories and on the land, but likewise to develop methods of placing Italy's products rapidly and in attractive form upon the markets of the world.

For example, anyone who lives in Switzerland well knows how the excellent products of Italy's orchards and nurseries are passed by in favor of those from France and Spain, which the customer prefers because they are put up in better shape. Almost the same thing was true of the products of industry exported by Italy before the war. The war has proved that success is the reward of the man who watches over every detail and does not flatter himself that he can neglect the lesser things after he has completed the greater things.

Undoubtedly the situation thus depicted with regard to Italy's present and future activities is of peculiar interest in this country,

where for some years past Italian immigrant labor has been such an important factor in certain of our industries.

## EUROPE'S EXPERIENCE IN LIMITING WAR-TIME EXECUTIVE POWERS

DISCUSSION of the Overman bill has served to draw attention to the control over executive functions exerted by the legislative bodies of other countries.

The views of the Italian Minister of State, Tommaso Tittoni, in this matter, as given in *Nuova Antologia*, are worthy of note. The question is one of more especial importance in Italy, as fuller and more unlimited powers have been conferred upon the government there than in any other of the belligerent countries.

The chief objection raised against a more active collaboration of the Italian Parliament with the executive is that this would tend to weaken the government just at the very moment it most needs to be strengthened. As to this Minister Tittoni declares that far from weakening it, he merely wishes to do away with its isolation from Parliament, an isolation that has caused the government to be held exclusively responsible for all the errors that have been made, and for all the failures that have resulted.

A closer association of Parliament with the executive would only add to the latter's strength and authority, and just at this time, when the situation is so very grave, there appears to be even greater urgency that Parliament should lend more efficacious support to the executive, either by the constitution of special committees, or at least by asking for a restitution of those statutory functions which the Italian Parliament voluntarily renounced for an indefinite period in a moment of patriotic impulse.

### ENGLAND AND FRANCE

While the British Government, by the provisions of the Defense of the Realm Act of November 27, 1914, has been clothed with practically unlimited powers within certain fields, the boundaries of these fields have been strictly defined and the special powers only concern the prevention of all intercourse with the enemy; the suppression of all attempts to disseminate false news, or any news that might do harm to the cause or disturb the relations between the Allies;

the protection of army and navy, of the means of communication and of the ports from danger; and the assurance of freedom of navigation.

In France, two years after the beginning of the war, the government asked the Chamber to pass a law granting full powers to the executive, but the proposition was rejected, one of the deputies exclaiming that this would be to organize a dictatorship. The Chamber of Deputies can rightly claim to have met all the exigencies of the war without renouncing its constitutional privileges, and not long since its presiding officer was able to say: "It will be to our eternal honor that, in face of the greatest of the world's catastrophes, we have not been forced to do violence to our fundamental laws."

In England and in France, with the prolongation of the conflict, the necessity for a greater control of expenditures has made itself felt, and to satisfy this legislative committees have been appointed.

The Select Committee on National Finance of the House of Commons was chosen July 25, 1917. It consists of twenty-six members selected from all the parties, and its sub-committees strictly examine all outlays for military purposes as well as for the purchase of grain.

Of the French committees of control elected by the Chamber of Deputies, Clémenceau went so far as to say that they had been the salvation of France, and this opinion is said to be shared by leaders of all parties. The necessity for an equally effective control of expenditures in Italy is warmly urged by Signor Tittoni.

The article of Minister Tittoni has aroused considerable discussion in Italy, and the *Rassegna Nazionale* has opened its pages to correspondence on the subject. The opinions expressed have been in several instances so frank as to invite the attention of the censor, but it can easily be seen that the writers are in sympathy with Tittoni's ideas.

From Ferdinando Nunziante we have the declaration that the full powers conceded by

Parliament for the prosecution of the war cannot justify many of the dispositions made in matters having no connection with the war—dispositions that have only resulted in a notable and useless increase in outlay, and in the imposition of new and unnecessary limitations on statutory liberties.

For Giulio Padulli the failure of cordial coöperation between the government and

Parliament would constitute a fatal hindrance to the development of the national energies, since by preventing the free expression of criticism it would favor the accumulation of bitter feelings. Lastly, Claudio Treves notes that in England and France the representative bodies, instead of reducing their prerogatives during the war, have augmented them.

## THE NATIONAL ANTHEM

SINCE the United States entered the world war there has naturally been much comment, some of it critical in character, on the words and music of our national anthem. It has seemed to some critics, notably Miss Kitty Cheatham, the well-known singer and community music worker, that the sentiments of "The Star Spangled Banner," especially as expressed in the second verse—"Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes"—are inappropriate to the present time, and it has even been suggested that reference to our bygone differences with Great Britain may tend to disrupt the cordiality now existing between the two nations.

Mr. Edwin Litchfield Turnbull, writing in the *New York Sun*, agrees fully with these writers that nothing should be permitted to disturb the brotherhood and unity of purpose now binding America to England more strongly than any signed treaty or alliance. But he points out that usually only the first stanza of the anthem is sung and this certainly contains no word that could be objectionable to our English cousins. He calls our attention to the fact that it is not customary in Great Britain to sing more than the first verse of "God Save the King."

He also suggests that it is an additional bond of sympathy between our country and Great Britain that the melody of "The Star Spangled Banner" is an old English air, composed probably about the time of the Revolutionary War, for the frivolous words of a drinking song, "To Anacreon in Heaven." There has been controversy as to the composer of this music. Mr. Oscar Sonneck, in his exhaustive report on the subject for the Library of Congress, gives it as his opinion that the weight of evidence is in favor of John Stafford Smith, the date being between 1770 and 1775. It is a dignified melody well suited, as Mr. Turnbull says, to

the patriotic verses of Francis Scott Key, who himself indicated on the original manuscript (now in the collection of Mr. Henry Walters, of Baltimore) that he wished his verses to be sung to the tune of "To Anacreon in Heaven."

Mr. Turnbull thinks it probable that the music was first sung in this country about 1798, to the words of Robert Treat Paine's patriotic song, "Adams and Liberty," so that it was already familiar to the author of "The Star Spangled Banner" when in 1814 he composed his poem while watching the bombardment of Fort McHenry by the British fleet.

To the objection sometimes made that the music of our national anthem is difficult to sing because of the great range from low B flat to high F, Mr. Turnbull replies that the German national air, "Die Wacht am Rhein," has exactly the same compass.

Furthermore, Mr. Turnbull explains that in every large audience when the national anthem is sung the extreme notes are well covered by the low and high voices and the singing is usually supported by an orchestra or military band so that the general effect is good. As an instrumental number, particularly when played by a fine military band, the music is exceedingly impressive.

What we Americans need, according to Mr. Turnbull, is not a new national anthem, but more reverence for both words and music of the one that we already have, which is indissolubly bound up with the traditions of this and of our mother land for more than a century.

As to the quality of "The Star Spangled Banner" as music, Mr. Henry T. Finck, for many years musical critic of the *New York Evening Post*, says in the *Independent* that while he regards it as inferior to the Russian and Austrian national hymns, he thinks it is far better than the "Watch on the

Rhine." Its best setting, in part, is in Puccini's "Madame Butterfly," where some delightful effects are achieved with it.

While it is probably impossible to establish by law strict regulations covering the use of the national anthem, the *Bellman*, of Minneapolis, thinks that it would be a great help if the Government or some affiliated patriotic organization would issue official instructions regarding these matters. These should state clearly that there is only one official recognized national anthem, "The Star Spangled Banner."

The *Bellman* is certainly quite right in saying that it is nonsensical to have two or more songs sharing the full national honors. People may be left to act according to their own judgment with regard to "America," "Columbia," or the "Battle Hymn of the Republic," but the instructions concerning the national anthem should be definite. "That civilians should rise and uncover whenever it is played or sung goes without saying, but it should not be played or sung publicly except as part of a ceremony or meeting of a definitely patriotic character."

## THE SPANISH MERCHANT FLEET

IN the February issue of *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) Señor Alfenique (pen name) presents an interesting view of Spanish interests in the mercantile world. He points out that during the past forty years almost every nation has built up a powerful merchant marine, while Spain, "though naturally one of the first nations of the world—and without question the first in point of discovery—has remained almost inactive."

He continues—had Spain installed one shipyard each year (since 1876) and built *merchant vessels*, not *ironclads*, Spain today would have a fleet of over 5000 vessels! The possession of such a fleet would have encouraged an increase of manufacturing in Spain, with a consequent exportation to foreign countries, especially South America.

Five thousand ships, with a total tonnage amounting to, approximately 10,000,000 tons would have opened the markets of the world to Spain "with the double key of *speed* and *cheapness*" and overcome the strong influence in South America at present enjoyed by North America (*e. g.*, the United States) thanks to its many maritime lines in the commercial service.

Through the inattention of Spain to maritime needs she has lost touch with her transatlantic sons and she sees "the impossibility of competing in cheapness with similar foreign products—especially from the United States, whose commercial expansion is rendered more formidable through the carrying out, without any opposition, of the *egoistic* Monroe Doctrine."

While the world is engaged in the great war the United States is preparing "to expel Europe (and especially Spain) from South American markets" says Señor Alfenique.

The Panama Canal is aiding this design by connecting New York, by means of five 10,000-ton steamers (of 18 knots) with Colon, Callao, Mollendo, Arica, Iquique, Antofagasta and Coquimbo: thus practically all Chile will fall under the commercial influence of the United States.

Spain labors under a disadvantage because of this fact: Unless South America can purchase goods cheaper and better in the mother country, sentiment will have no effect and the United States will continue to furnish most of her imports.

Spain has erred again in not starting to build ships as soon as the war started; instead it has remained torpid in the center of a vicious circle of recrimination and inaction.

To-day the total merchant fleet of Spain is but 843 ships, with a total tonnage of 847,578 tons: this shipping is divided between 603 steam vessels of 816,477 tons and 240 sailing craft of 31,101 tons. The majority of the shipping is located in Bilbao, Barcelona, Valencia, Seville and Cadiz (in the order named). Bilbao naturally stands first, owing its superior access to supplies of iron in its various manufactured forms, its tonnage of 348,935 (distributed in 217 vessels) cost an average of 5000 pesetas<sup>1</sup>—though the present cost per ton is about 12,150 pesetas, owing to abnormal conditions caused by the war.

Though Spain has hitherto failed to build merchant ships, Señor Alfenique strongly urges the absolute necessity of starting to build now, so that Spain may reach the place rightfully hers in the commercial world.

<sup>1</sup>The value of the peseta before the war was about 19.2 cents. It is now at a premium here.



## WHAT IS A TORNADO?

**E**VER since the United States Weather Bureau was established, one of its constant occupations has been the attempt to teach the public that a cyclone is a totally different thing from a tornado. A cyclone is an area of low barometric pressure, of vast horizontal extent, with a typical system of winds, which may or may not be stormy. The average American citizen experiences one or two cyclones a week, year in and year out, the most obvious tokens of their occurrence being a rise in temperature, increased cloudiness and, frequently, rain or snow. A tornado is a local whirlwind of almost insignificant size compared with the cyclone, but more violent than any other wind known on the face of the earth.

In a pertinent contribution to the last *Monthly Weather Review* (Washington), Prof. A. J. Henry says:

The real tornado is to be distinguished by several unmistakable characteristics, first, the whirling column of air and pendant funnel-shaped cloud, whose lower end is always in physical contact with the earth when it causes destruction. Whether or not the funnel cloud can be seen depends somewhat upon the size of the storm, on the viewpoint of the observer and also the time of day. In the dry regions of the Great Plains the funnel cloud is often plainly visible miles away across the prairies, but in the more humid districts east of the Mississippi River, where the cloud mass is much greater, it is sometimes impossible to perceive the funnel cloud in the darkness and rain produced by the general rain cloud. The second characteristic is a very significant roar that has been likened to the rumbling of distant thunder or the approach of a train of heavy cars; and finally, after the storm has passed, the lay of the debris will generally indicate whether there has been a twisting or whirling motion of the winds. If the debris lies parallel with the course of the storm, then the winds have been straight-line rather than spiral or curving and the storm was not a tornado.

Tornadoes almost invariably travel in an easterly direction. The prevailing direction is from the southwest to the northeast. The width of the path of great destruction varies from a few rods to half a mile; in extreme cases a width of as much as a mile has been reported. The average length of the path of great destruction is about twenty-five miles, although here again individual cases vary greatly from the average. Great de-



WRECKAGE IN THE PATH OF A TORNADO THROUGH AN AMERICAN CITY  
(The destruction caused in Omaha, Nebraska, in the spring of 1913)

struction is not always continuous throughout the entire path of the storm, but occurs only where the funnel cloud is in contact with the earth. The funnel cloud sometimes rises and passes over considerable distances before again descending to earth.

Professor Henry presents a sort of tornado catechism, embracing the questions most commonly asked about these storms and the answers to them. The following is an extract:

*Q. During what month of the year can tornadoes be looked for in the Mississippi Valley.*

*Ans.* Tornadoes may occur in the Gulf States in winter. As the season advances the region of greatest frequency is found in the Plains States and the Mississippi Valley, May being the month of occurrence of the greatest number, April coming next. East of the Appalachians tornadoes occur rarely until after July. The season of tornadoes in the Mississippi Valley extends from April to September, inclusive.

*Q. In case a cyclone cellar is not available, what, in your estimation, would be a safe place?*

*Ans.* The southwest portion of the cellar of a frame house.

*Q. What about cellars in brick buildings during such storms; are they safe?*

*Ans.* That depends entirely on the severity of the tornado. Some tornadoes merely destroy the roof of brick houses; some cause the walls to crumble or fall outward. The cellar of a brick house is probably safer than any other place in that particular structure. In the Omaha tornado of March, 1913, very few brick houses were seriously damaged.

*Q. What time of day do these storms occur?*

*Ans.* Generally from 3:30 to 5 p. m.

*Q. Have there been any at night?*

*Ans.* Yes.

*Q. Have the municipalities any way of notifying the people, and how?*

Ans. The place where a tornado will form can not be foretold. Tornadoes, like thunderstorms and hailstorms, occur, for the most part, on warm, sultry afternoons, in the late spring and in summer. While the precise path of these storms can not be accurately foretold, the weather maps show when the conditions are favorable to their generation.

The local signs of the approach of a tornado are ominous clouds, first in the southwest and then almost immediately in the northwest and north. The appearance of a pendant funnel-shaped cloud may be taken as conclusive evidence of the presence of a tornado. If a funnel cloud can not be observed, its existence can be known by a peculiar roaring noise, somewhat like the

rumbling of distant thunder or the approach of a train of heavy cars.

If one can see the tornado cloud and gain an idea of its direction of motion, then the zone of safety is in a line at right angles to the direction of motion. If the tornado is moving toward the northeast, then one should run toward the northwest, provided, of course, the storm is about to move a little to the south of the observer's position.

The southern margin of a tornado is more dangerous than the northern, and one should take advantage of this fact in the endeavor to reach a place of safety, remembering that usually the width of the path of great destruction does not cover more than a couple of city blocks and that comparative safety may be found only a short distance at right angles to the line of advance.

## GUATEMALA'S EARTHQUAKE DISASTER

THE latest disastrous earthquake in Central America is described in the *American Museum Journal* by an eye-witness, Prof. S. G. Morley, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington. A series of shocks, culminating on January 3, 1918, completely ruined the city of Guatemala, the capital of the republic of the same name and a place of 100,000 inhabitants, with a loss of life amounting to about three hundred. Thus the destructive earthquake and volcanic eruption which visited San Salvador June 7, 1917, was eclipsed by a greater disaster of similar character in the adjacent republic. It is likely that the two disturbances belonged to the same "family" of earthquakes.

"Thrice," says Professor Morley, "and each time located in a different spot, the capital of Guatemala has been destroyed by earthquakes—in 1541, in 1773, and lastly in the recent shocks." The original capital was founded in 1527 and did not attain great importance, but the second became the most magnificent and populous city of Central America, having as many as 60,000 inhabitants by the middle of the eighteenth century. After this city had suffered numerous severe shocks the Spanish authorities sought a new location for the capital, on a site supposed to be entirely immune from earthquakes, and the third capital was founded in 1776. Though the expectations of the founders were not realized and the new city was frequently injured by seismic shocks, its beauty and importance eventually earned it the title of "the Paris of Central America." To-day this city lies in ruins. Nearly one

hundred thousand people are living under flimsy temporary shelters or in the open, and great suffering and loss of life are threatened unless adequate housing shall have been provided before the rainy season begins in June.

The recent series of shocks began on November 17 last, but no destructive shock occurred until Christmas night. The first violent disturbance was felt in the early evening.

At half-past eleven the ground lifted a second time under our feet, jerked back and forth, and all but upset us. Buildings crashed down, wires short-circuited, and a choking dust again filled the air.

In view of the fact that their homes were being shaken down almost about their heads, the inhabitants were surprisingly calm. I saw very little hysteria and no disorder. The Indians fell on their knees when the second shock started, and began to pray. Lighted tapers were produced from somewhere and the drone of many prayers came from all sides. This second shock was far more severe than the first, and was the one which really destroyed the city. Subsequent shocks only brought down previously cracked and loosened walls. There followed an interval of minor quivers until ten minutes past two in the morning, when the third and last great movement of that long night shook the city, bringing down many more houses.

About seventy people were killed on Christmas night. The fourth heavy shock occurred at 2 p. m., December 29, when more than a hundred lives were lost.

Again the stricken city strove to compose itself. Slight tremors still continued but of diminished violence. A few shops opened here and there; fewer people left the city; confidence was returning a second time, when at twenty minutes to eleven in the evening of January 3, the city

was rocked to its very foundations by the most tremendous shock of all. The earth lifted up as though pushed by some vast subterranean agency seeking outlet, held a moment thus, and then in terrific jerks and twitchings, settled back. By stop-watch this mighty movement lasted eleven minutes from its first cataclysmic second to its last dying tremor. And the destruction which it accomplished was more than that of all the others combined.

It is true that the city had already been fairly well loosened in its joints, but the earthquake of January 3 finished the work of destruction.



THE TECHNICAL COLLEGE OF GUATEMALA CITY, WRECKED BY THE EARTHQUAKES OF DECEMBER AND JANUARY LAST

## STANDARD TIME AT SEA

REFORMS in time-keeping are the order of the day. With improved facilities of intercommunication the old-fashioned parochialism of the sundial and the sun-ruled clock is becoming more and more inadequate to the practical needs of a busy world. We have not yet reached the millennium of using an identical standard of time throughout the world—abolishing the paradox that makes the instant we call “now” six o’clock at one place, twelve o’clock at another, and so on—but indications are not lacking that for telegraphic purposes, at least, this absolute uniformity will be realized in the near future.

Meanwhile the use of the standard time zones, the ultimate effect of which is to give the world only twenty-four kinds of time instead of an unlimited number, is rapidly spreading from one country to another. In passing, it may be noted that the daylight-saving law recently enacted by Congress gives federal recognition, for the first time, to the existence of this kind of time-keeping in the United States.

About a year ago the French Government took the important step of adopting zone time on board its naval vessels. In other words, a French warship no longer sets her clock and regulates her bells according to local solar time from day to day, but uses the time of the nearest standard meridian, exactly as travelers do on *terra firma* in those parts of the world where standard time is in operation. Thus in circumnavigating the globe her clock would be changed twenty-four times, and in each case by a whole hour.

Recently the British Admiralty summoned

a conference of government officials and representatives of scientific societies to consider the desirability of adopting a similar reform in the British naval and merchant services. The *Geographical Journal* (London) says:

The principal business of the conference was to consider the desirability of extending to the sea the system of time zones now widely adopted on the land; a system whose advantages have long been recognized as highly conducive to precision and certainty in the interchange of telegrams, the arrangements of train and postal services, and in many other departments of life. Until recently a ship at sea was a law to itself; and although ship’s time was usually more or less adjusted to apparent time at noon each day, there was no certainty that the time of a message despatched from the ship or of an entry in the ship’s log could be translated into Greenwich mean time. The conference was of the opinion that the establishment of zones at sea (outside territorial waters) corresponding to the time zones on land is the most practical method of obtaining uniformity in time reckoning at sea.

Certain modifications of the plan as adopted by the French Navy were, however, recommended:

In the French system the time zones are numbered eastward from 0 to 23 hours, which, while in many respects convenient, has the disadvantage that it does not give without ambiguity the reduction from the time of any zone to the time and date of Greenwich. The conference therefore recommended that “the zone extending from  $7\frac{1}{2}$  degrees east to  $7\frac{1}{2}$  degrees west of the meridian of Greenwich should be the Zero Zone. The zones west of the Zero Zone should be described as Plus 1, Plus 2 . . . up to Plus 12 for that part of Zone 12 lying east of the date line (*i. e.*, the line based on the 180th meridian, on crossing which the date must be advanced or put back one day), and the zones east of the Zero Zone should

be described as Minus 1, Minus 2 . . . up to Minus 12, for that part of Zone 12 lying west of the date line."

With respect to various details of operation the conference recommended:

That the alteration of the time of the clocks in ships should always be one hour, and be invariably recorded in the ship's log; but the instant at which the clock is altered need not necessarily be that at which the ship passes from one zone to another.

That the zone description, *i. e.*, the correction required to obtain Greenwich time, be always plainly shown on the clocks, either by labels or otherwise.

That in all entries in ships' records, whenever a date is given it should be accompanied by the zone description; and that in all official communications and correspondence, when a time is given the zone description should be added.

That for all regular meteorological observations the ship's clock time should be used. That, as a rule, all self-recording meteorological instruments on board ship (which it would be difficult to adjust continually for zone time) should

keep Greenwich time; the zone description should be entered daily on the record.

The conference recommended that zone time should be used provisionally in registering the receipt and despatch of wireless telegraph, telegraph and visual messages.

While making this recommendation, the conference was nevertheless of the opinion that ultimately the most convenient time to adopt for all records of and reference to time in connection with the despatch and receipt of all messages, whether wireless, cable, or land lines throughout the world, would be Greenwich time, and expressed the hope that this proposal might as soon as possible be brought before the various nations and bodies concerned.

The general plan of using standard time at sea has been adopted by the Italian Navy, though details have not yet been announced. The other maritime countries can hardly fail to follow the example of France, Great Britain, and Italy.

## CHINA'S SALT TAX

THE financial importance of salt, from ancient times down to the present day, is one of the curiosities of political economy. Salt taxes have been a favorite method of raising public revenues and, too often, of exploiting the tax-payer. The *gabelle*, or salt tax, of pre-Revolutionary France, was an institution the unpopularity of which is echoed in the slurring use of the modern nickname of French custom house and *octroi* employees — "*gabelou*." The practise which prevailed in France of graduating the salt tax in different parts of the country more or less according to the facility of collecting it finds a parallel in the history of the Chinese salt *gabelle*, an interesting account of which is published by Commercial Agent A. W. Ferrin in *Commerce Reports* (Washington: Government Printing Office).

Prior to the revolution which established the Republic, the management of the salt tax was a subject on which little information could be secured. At that time China was divided for purposes of administration into eleven salt areas, seven of which produced sea salt, two lake salt, and two well salt; and these areas were subdivided into a large number of districts, in an attempt to equalize to some degree the natural conditions in various places. Since the government not only taxed the salt but acted as middleman between producer and retailer, frequently as transportation agent as well as wholesaler, and in some Provinces managed the whole salt business as a government monopoly, it was neces-

sary to make such a schedule of taxes as the traffic would bear. A high tax on salt near the sea, and a consequent high price to the consumer, would, of course, set everybody to evaporating his own salt, and the prevention of illicit manufacture would cost more than the revenues collected. In places where no salt was produced a high tax could hardly be evaded, but too high a tax would stop the consumption of salt and hence cut down the government's revenues.

Such considerations as these, with others, greatly complicated the management of the salt *gabelle*. The salt was practically in bond from the vats to the depot, where it was sold at a price fixed by the government to privileged persons, and was taxed at every stage of manufacture, transportation, and sale. In Provinces where the government itself did not maintain a monopoly the salt dealers did, and they paid heavily for licenses. With the various legitimate government charges on salt, it was found in some places that this article was paying no less than forty-three different taxes in addition to increments put on by local and provincial officials, although each tax was of course infinitesimal. What the average tax for the Empire was is as hard to determine as the aggregate return.

In the four Yangtze River Provinces, south Anwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, and the half of Hupeh that consumed sea salt, the average tax was above \$2 a picul (133½ pounds). But in districts near the salt works no tax or at best a merely nominal tax was imposed, and in many places the aggregate of the duties collected was less than \$1 a picul.

Prior to the year 1913 the salt *gabelle* was so loosely administered that it never yielded



anything like a full return. Information as to the amount of revenue which reached the central government from this source is vague. One estimate is that it amounted to about \$20,000,000 Mexican a year. A new era in Chinese finance is marked by the negotiation of the Reorganization Loan of 1913.

When the new Chinese Republic in 1913 approached the international bankers for a loan of 25,000,000 pounds sterling for the reorganization of the country's finances, the salt revenue was offered as security, subject to some underlying liens, which included a contingent liability under the terms of the Boxer indemnity. The international bankers demanded as a preliminary to the loan the complete reform of the salt gabelle under foreign direction, and practical foreign control of its future collection. To this demand the Chinese Government acceded, and in December, 1913, provisional order No. 43 was promulgated, creating a central salt administration under the Ministry of Finance, with two chief inspectors, one Chinese and one foreign. The foreign inspector chosen was Sir Richard Dane, and he has virtually controlled the collection of the salt tax since that date. The Chinese still control entirely the production and sale of salt, in regard to which Sir Richard acts merely as adviser. Much progress has been made, however, in the direction of the abolition of monopolies in salt dealing and the introduction of free trade, notably in Kwantung and Szechwan Provinces.

It was found impracticable to adopt a flat tax rate, and the old system of rates was adhered to, with some modifications. The intervention of Europeans and of occidental methods led to the striking result that the proceeds of the tax were approximately tripled without much increase in the cost of salt to the consumer.

The proceeds of the salt gabelle for the first year of the new administration were \$60,000,000 Mexican. This money was deposited as it arrived in Peking in equal amounts in each of the five banks of the reorganization loan syndicate. The German bank has, of course, been eliminated since the entrance of China into the war. Interest was paid by these banks on the various foreign obligations secured on the gabelle on order of the chief inspectors. On balances they allow 2 per cent. interest.

It was provided in the agreement that the salt account could be drawn upon only under the joint signature of the chief inspectors, "whose duty it will be to protect the priority of the several obligations secured upon the salt revenue." These obligations are: (1) The Anglo-German loan of 1898 (secured primarily on the Maritime Customs, and interest is now paid entirely from customs revenues); (2) the Boxer indemnity of 1901; (3) Hupeh provincial bonds of 1909; (4) Chihli provincial bonds of 1910; (5) the so-called Crisp loan of 1912; (6) the reorganization loan of 1913; (7) the Hukuang Railway loan.

The charges on these obligations vary, owing to the fact that some of them are jointly secured on the Maritime Customs. In 1914 payments on these obligations from the salt gabelle amounted to \$21,106,572 Mexican; in 1915 to \$34,599,082, and in 1916 to \$24,911,905.

It was further provided in the reorganization loan agreement that any surplus over the amount required to take care of the obligations charged on the salt revenues should be released by the chief inspectors for the general use of the Chinese Government. It was not expected at that time that there would be any large surplus; but many causes, some of them arising out of the war, have combined to create a very considerable one, which is at present the chief financial support of the Chinese Government.

Probably the most important of these causes is the adnormal rise in the gold value of silver. While the Boxer indemnity agreement provided that any deficit due to inadequate receipts from the Maritime Customs should be made good from the salt revenue, the reorganization loan agreement provided that any excess of Maritime Customs receipts over requirements should go to pay charges secured on the salt gabelle, thus increasing by that much the surplus of salt revenue. And the latter provision is the one that has come into effect. The customs service collects duties in silver, while interest on China's foreign debts is paid in gold; so that the change in the relative value of the two has been very much to the advantage of the Chinese treasury, which receives in appreciated metal and pays in depreciated.

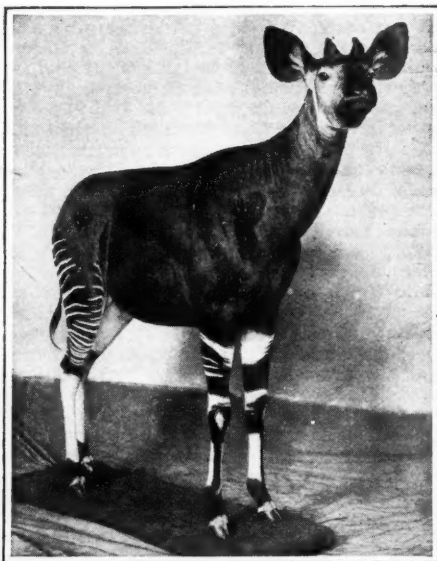
The accumulation of a reserve, to be left always in the banks against possible future loss of revenue by disturbances in the Provinces and otherwise, was begun by Sir Richard Dane in 1914, and by agreement between salt inspectors and the Government has now been fixed at \$10,000,000 Mexican. Besides taking care of all the obligations secured on the gabelle and accumulating this surplus the salt administration has turned surpluses over to the Chinese Government as follows: 1914, \$31,304,818 Mexican; 1915, \$27,523,066; 1916, \$52,226,185.

The total revenues from the salt gabelle in 1916 were \$72,440,559 Mexican. The collection in the first ten months of 1917 slightly exceeded the returns for the same period in 1916, and November and December will be big months because of the practise of the Chinese people of salting down great quantities of meats and vegetables during these months.

At the present time, therefore, the salt surplus is the biggest free asset of the Chinese Government, and if it should continue to grow, or even stay where it is, and be properly used, it would go very far toward solving China's financial problems.

Mr. Ferrin might have added that this is an amazing outcome of what appeared to everyone at the time to be a piece of reckless imprudence on the part of the Chinese Government; viz., the Reorganization Loan of 1913, the proceeds of which were rapidly dissipated.

## THE AFRICAN OKAPI, A BEAST UNKNOWN TO THE ZOOS



Photograph by Am. Museum of Natural History

MOUNTED SPECIMEN OF THE OKAPI

**I**N the American Museum of Natural History, New York City, may be seen a mounted specimen of the Okapi, the animal made famous in 1901 by the efforts of Sir Harry Johnston, which resulted in procuring from the heart of equatorial Africa, the skeleton and skins of this remarkable quadruped for the British Museum.

The home of the okapi lies in a strip 600 miles long, hardly 180 miles wide, and about 700 miles from either coast. This region is described as one of the most dismal spots on the globe. The unflagging heat, day and night, renders the moist atmosphere almost unendurable. Storms of tropical violence are of almost daily occurrence. White men avoid this part of Africa, and that explains why the okapi was not really made known to science until the beginning of the present century, although Stanley had noted its existence in 1887.

The management of the American Museum gives the following information:

A big okapi stands five feet at the withers, and the short heavy neck carries a delicately modeled, deerlike head. The glossy brown and purplish black of the body are set off by the conspicuous white stripes and bands of the limbs, and the zebra-like pattern on the buttocks. The okapi

has a highly developed sense of hearing, and is extremely hard to stalk. It was only after camping for several years in the dismal country which it inhabits, and after countless difficulties, that the Museum party succeeded in capturing specimens of the rare animal. But they persisted in the face of all discouragements, for one of the main objects of the expedition was to obtain for the American Museum a habitat group of the okapi before the progress of civilization should make impossible the procuring of material for such a group, and to clear away the mystery that so long surrounded the origin and nature of this most interesting of ruminants. These objects the American party accomplished, furnishing full authentic observations on the life history of the animal, and a remarkable set of photographs.

Stanley had referred to the okapi as a "donkey-like animal." In 1901 London scientists, impressed by the striped portion of the hide, announced the discovery of a new species of forest zebra. A little later, after Sir Harry Johnston had secured the remains of an okapi, it was found that the animal had cloven hoofs.

Other salient characters in the skeleton, and especially the skull, proved conclusively that the animal belonged to neither the donkey nor the zebra family, but was a survivor of the giraffe group which flourished in southern Asia and Europe during Miocene ages, two million years ago. Some of these ancestors differed vitally from each other in size and form; and the okapi, too, has practically no external resemblance to the living giraffe, the two stumpy, skin-covered horns on the top of the head and the tuft of long bristles tipping the tail being the only external counterparts seen in the okapi and the giraffe. There are striking differences between these two animals of the same family, especially to be remarked of the lips, tongue, nostrils and eyes—but all such variations are due to the moulding force of environment.

Speaking of the difficulties in the way of hunting the okapi, Mr. Lang, the leader of the expedition, said: "Having walked more than a thousand miles in the tracks of the okapi, we unhesitatingly state that a great wariness and nocturnal habits effectively protect it from being successfully stalked by white men. Those who can rightfully claim to have seen a living okapi, or shot one, have been favored quite accidentally. The natives often capture them in carefully arranged traps set in their trails. The okapi is a typical browser, feeding by night, often while rambling with a companion. The female invariably takes the lead, its ears alert for the slightest suspicious sounds. During the day it generally rests, but sometimes moves when storms rage and falling leaves and branchlets drown the usual noises. While they visit the swamp regions, they spend by far the greater portion of their time in the higher and dryer parts of the forest."

# THE LATEST GREAT CANAL PROJECT

WHILE Canada has under way the undertaking (now temporarily suspended) of reconstructing the Welland Canal on a greatly enlarged scale, a project is on foot on the other side of the border to provide an alternative waterway of even greater capacity between Lakes Erie and Ontario. The idea is far from new—it has, in fact, been talked of for more than forty years—but it has now reached the stage of serious consideration by experts. A detailed project for a combined ship, sanitation and power canal is presented in the *Scientific American* by Dr. J. A. L. Waddell, the well-known engineer. The proposed route is shown in the accompanying map. The canal would be forty miles in length, with a bottom width varying from 250 to 300 feet and a depth of thirty feet.

The object of the projected construction is threefold, viz.:

*First.*—To carry the largest lake-vessels, as well as barges, between Lakes Erie and Ontario in the shortest practicable time and at the least possible expense.

*Second.*—To divert the sewage of the cities of Lackawanna, Buffalo, Tonawanda, and contiguous municipalities along Lake Erie and the Niagara River, which sewage now seriously pollutes the drinking water of the numerous communities along the banks of the latter, and in times past has caused serious outbreaks of typhoid. After using such purifying agencies as may be found necessary, it would then be discharged into Lake Ontario so far from the shore as to render it unobnoxious.

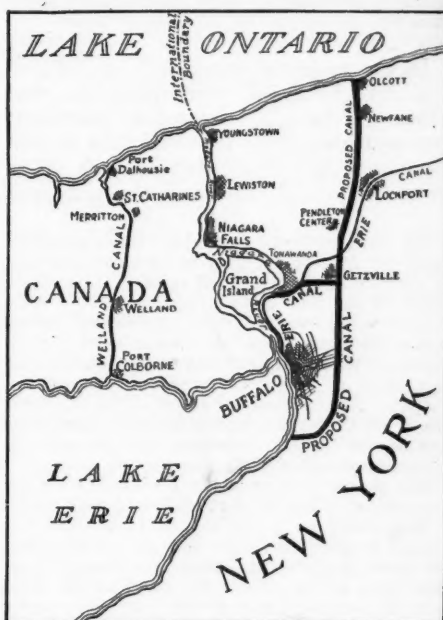
*Third.*—To develop energy to the amount of about 800,000 horse-power.

According to a treaty with the Canadian Government, there can be diverted from the Niagara River, for power and sanitation purposes combined, 26,000 cubic feet of water per second; and this, it is estimated, will produce in falling 320 feet (or the combined heights of the three locks) the 800,000 horsepower mentioned.

No accurate estimate of cost of the entire project is possible at this time, because the necessary surveys have not been finished, and because the existing chaos in the material and labor markets renders reliable estimating on any large construction impracticable. Approximate profiles have been drawn by using the Government contour maps; much information has been collected concerning the character of the materials to be moved; and the approximate quantities of earth, shale, and rock excavation have been figured from the geological and geodetic maps in existence.

It is easily conceivable that the total cost of construction would be large; and it is probable that not less than \$125,000,000 would be required to complete the entire construction and to put into operation the canals and the power development.

May—7



ROUTE OF THE PROPOSED SHIP CANAL BETWEEN LAKES ERIE AND ONTARIO

The total fall between the two lakes is 327 feet. Of this amount eight feet of drop could be utilized at the head of the canal so as to reverse the flow of the watercourses and the main sewers in Buffalo and Tonawanda; about seven feet would be needed to produce the required velocity of two and a half miles per hour in the canal; and the remaining height of 312 feet would be divided between two lift-locks, one of 208-foot and the other of 104-foot rise. Naturally, the canal would project into each lake for the purpose of creating a harbor and terminal docks.

The huge lift-locks are the most striking feature of this project, as they would greatly exceed in size anything of the kind now in existence. Lift-locks differ entirely in principle from the common form of canal lock (such as the locks of the Panama Canal), and as they are comparatively unfamiliar to the non-technical public, we quote the following account of their operation from the "New International Encyclopædia":

In the vertical lift-lock system the boat is floated into a movable trough, the ends of which are closed by gates, while similar gates close the ends of the canal approaches. When the gates are closed behind the boat, the trough is raised or lowered, as the case may be, until it coincides with the other level of the canal, when the front

gates are opened and the boat proceeds on its way. The trough is raised and lowered by means of hydraulic or other power, aided sometimes by counterweights or flotation tanks.

In the projected canal each of the lift-locks will be double, comprising two steel tanks, side by side, operated by electricity. One tank rises while the other falls, so that they serve as counterpoises to each other. In the larger of the two locks each tank

is 660 feet long by 70 feet wide (inside measurement) by 35 feet deep, so as to contain 30 feet of water without danger of spilling. The inner edges of the two tanks are connected by wire ropes running over a line of 56 sheaves, each 20 feet in diameter; and each outer edge is connected by wire ropes running over a similar line of sheaves to a row of large concrete counterweights. As the depths of water in the two tanks are to be kept equal at all times, as nearly as may be, the loads to be raised and lowered will always be counter-balanced.

The three piers or walls for supporting the sheaves are about 280 feet high, and each varies in thickness from 9 feet to 17.5 feet. They are toothed by offsets or buttresses (so as to permit the passage of the projecting steel hangers) on both faces of the middle wall and on the inner faces of the two outer walls; but, on the outer faces of the latter, one-half of the offsets are omitted, so as to provide room for the large counterweight blocks.

At each end of each tank there is provided a steel gate operating vertically and dropping into a steel box which contains water; and two similar gates are to be located at the high end and two more at the low end of the canal.

The operation of the lifts would be by electricity, generated in the large power-houses lo-

cated in their vicinity, the water therefore being carried from head-race to tail-race through large pipes or tunnels. The power would be applied to the rims of all the sheaves by means of racks and pinions, with reduction gear leading to the motors. These are to be placed on top of the piers, each of the latter being capped by a large concrete slab, thus forming a platform some 23 feet wide and 680 feet long. All the motors are to be so connected as to act strictly in unison, in order that the upward and the downward motions of the tanks may be regular and uniform.

Beneath the tanks there are to be large air-buffers, capable of bringing the tank to rest from its greatest allowed speed besides which there would be self-acting solenoid brakes to check the velocity at the proper places.

Locking apparatus would be required to hold the tanks to exact position at top and bottom of travel. These would project through the walls or piers, and they would have to be of a most substantial character.

The higher lift-lock would require about ten minutes to raise, and the lower one about five minutes; and it would take several minutes more to raise and lower the gates. Possibly a passage through the higher lift could be made in as short a time as 20 minutes, and through the lower lift in 15 minutes. As it takes several hours for a vessel to pass through the combined locks of the Welland Canal, it is evident that the aggregate total saving in time of transit would be enormous. Again, the amount of energy required to operate the lift-locks is very small in comparison with that of the total wasted energy of the water spent in passing vessels through the locks of the Welland Canal. At present this is a matter of no importance, because the water-power of Niagara River is but partially harnessed; but the time is coming when practically all of its energy will be utilized, and then the uneconomies of operating the Welland Canal will be more generally appreciated.

## THE ECONOMICS OF THE PALATE

DR. DAVID FAIRCHILD, of the United States Department of Agriculture, in a paper on "The Palate of Civilized Man and Its Influence on Agriculture," published in the *Journal of the Franklin Institute*, declares that the time has come for mankind to make a careful review of its likes and dislikes in food, as a preliminary to instituting widespread dietary reforms. His article deals at length with the astonishing diversity of opinion prevailing in different parts of the world concerning the edibility and the palatability of important foodstuffs, and easily sustains the thesis that these eccentricities of taste are an economic factor of colossal importance. The net result is to promote famines and add vastly to the cost of living. The war has thrown some relevant facts into high relief:

Consider the corn situation to-day and its bearing upon the gigantic problem before us of feeding starving Europe. When I first heard that the Belgians refused to eat corn, and that the Irish and English would eat anything else before they would touch it, my first impulse was to insist that they ought to be made to eat it. Edward Eyre Hunt, the author of "War Bread," explained and made it entirely clear to me that a shocked and outraged people, wrought up and nervous to a high degree as a result of the treatment they have received, is in no mental attitude to learn to like a new food. The task of education would have been too long and more expensive than the shifting of our own menu at home, and in the meantime would have cost many thousands of lives. Resort was made to the use of different names for corn and concealment of it in war bread with three parts of white flour. Sir Horace Plunkett informed me that unfortunately his people had grown up to look upon corn as hog and chicken food, and that this prejudice was extremely difficult to overcome, but that high prices



would in time force them to eat it. Not to like a food which has been the staple of peoples for thousands of years and to-day is produced by the thousand million bushels and feeds hundreds of millions of people seems to us who like it a strange, incomprehensible spectacle. Yet it is no stranger than that of the American people and their indifference to that other great cereal, rice, which is produced in larger amounts than any other cereal in the world and forms the staff of life of hundreds of millions of civilized peoples.

It is said that Europe is dependent upon the wheat loaf, and the bakeries of that country are ill-suited to utilize corn. We are sometimes inclined to insist that they should break away from the exclusive use of the wheat loaf and learn to make corn bread and corn cakes—yet we have not yet learned how to cook rice properly, and complain of its insipid character, which must be an attitude hard for our Oriental neighbors to understand. This indifference toward rice, of which staple we even now consume only the insignificant quantity of seven pounds per capita, has led to the abandonment of the fertile rice fields of the Carolinas, and to-day efforts are being made to find some paying crop to take its place there, because our meager demands have been met until very recently by the California and Texas rice areas recently developed.

Upon the prevalence of certain tastes in food depends the success or failure of millions of acres of farms and plantations, and changing tastes may involve the prosperity or the impoverishment of countless human beings; hence it is a startling thought that many food habits depend upon no more rational a basis than caprice and fashion.

Can the fact be established that, in the past, fashion in foods, a like for a food or a positive dislike, or a mere indifference toward it has brought about the cultivation of the plant, checked or stopped its cultivation, or accelerated its widespread cultivation? If it can, there will be no longer doubt that the factor is important, and the question of its careful scientific investigation is one worthy of serious consideration by the scientific bureaus and laboratories of the country and our great educational institutions as well.

The origin of many cultivated plants dates back beyond the dawn of history, and many of them have become so almost universally grown that no traditions even are left to mark the struggle they had to gain popular favor. Others, again, are so new that they are at the present time fighting for a place on the menu.

The wheat plant and the loaf of bread made from its kernels are universally liked. There is no race of people which does not like it. Yet it is a fact that the delicious hard bread of Spain and Russia, made from the durum wheat, a distinct species from our wheat, is not popular to-day in this country, and macaroni, the most popular form in which wheat is used in Italy, has, until recently, been little appreciated in America. These two facts hindered the development of the durum wheats when they were first introduced into this country in the nineties. If it had not been possible to export wheat to Italy for

macaroni making, there is serious doubt whether we should now have had the vast fields of it in Kansas, Minnesota, and the Dakotas. Millers had to remake their mills in order to grind the harder kernels, and bakers had to learn to mix it with softer wheats.

The oat is cultivated successfully in Hokkaido, the north island of Japan, but not for human food. It is used for the purpose of feeding to cattle in that island, and is imported in the south islands for the use of military horses, whereas we devote over thirty million acres to its culture. Oatmeal is a staple breakfast dish.

Dr. Fairchild cites a number of other equally striking examples of local or national tastes in food, leading up to the suggestion that these tastes did not necessarily arise in some mysterious revolutionary way, but were largely the result of fashion. Even the lower animals are capable of changing their instinctive food habits, within certain limits, as many examples prove.

Taste is the avenue of our contact with the world of chemical things. It is, after all, one of our five senses. Is it not worthy of all the study which can be given to it, and should not the education of the human palate become a matter of great importance and every effort be made to teach the value of a wide liking for everything that is good to eat? Let us not be misled by those who scoff at the problem. Scoffing is a trait unworthy of intelligent man. Think of the conservatories of music where the sense of hearing of thousands of our youth is trained, and the academies of art where the sense of sight is cultivated, and then compare these with the schools of Domestic Economy and see what a gulf there is between them. How far we must yet go to put the cultivation of the American palate where it really belongs!

The consideration of food as fuel was a great step in advance in the food question, but the discovery of McCollum, that certain substances contained in butter fat and the green leaves of plants are just as essential for a complete food as the proteins, fats, carbohydrates, and mineral constituents contained in grains, has opened a new door of possibility. The machinery for determining the comparative protoplasm building and conserving value of foods is rapidly being created and it is curious to reflect that the despised rat is being made one of the chief tools by means of which the food chemist is working them out. The human calorimeter, which amused the public at first, has come into prominence as one of the great tools of this generation. We are in a position such as we have never occupied before to test the value of the food plants of the world.

All these converging changes, it seems to me, indicate the present as a remarkable opportunity in which to consider whether the stone wall of taste is really a stone wall or whether it is something which the reason of man can tear down—whether, in other words, the time has not arrived when we should cease insisting that our likes and dislikes in foods are nobody's business anyhow, and begin to realize in how far this caprice of fashion will hinder the development of the agriculture of the future.

## THE WAR AND ADVANCE IN SURGERY

HOW the cruel exigencies of the Great War, the crucial need of rapid decision and action, have advanced surgical science by leaps and bounds, is shown by Dr. J. Jullien, battalion physician-in-chief, in a late issue of the *Mercure de France* (Paris). The progress made under such fearful odds will, the writer points out, be of permanent value to mankind.

As an evidence of the wonderful advances in surgery, the writer cites Dr. Depage, head of the hospital of La Panne, who observed: "A step as vast as that made by Lister in general surgery has been made in war surgery!"

Dr. Jullien proceeds:

The war presented the surgeons with new problems. How have they been solved? It may be said at the outset that this brief account redounds to the glory of French surgery.

Before the war the surgeon had control of a method and technique whose safety had been tested. The most daring operations were undertaken, but all based upon what is termed the aseptic method. The steadily growing knowledge of the human body was the controlling guide of action. One could, in a word, open the laboratory of the human system—but no dust must enter the premises.

The hospitals were the temples of the Goddess Asepsia. Under the lights of the operating room everything proceeded correctly and regularly. War wounds, it was believed in the spring of 1914, did not differ from surgical ones—a wounded soldier would be cared for as one took care of a hospital patient; only his wound would be dressed on the field of battle, and he should then be moved to the rear.

That this was a mistaken idea was proved in the first days of the war. The wounded, painfully moved, their wounds imperfectly dressed, reached a hospital, indeed, but their condition was such that it recalled the worst days of previous wars. *Maladies* supposed to be extinct broke out and multiplied—gaseous and hospital gangrene and blood-poisoning, those scourges of the old battle-fields. Cases of tetanus, too, the pests of the ambulance, increased.

It became necessary to resort to desperate, heroic measures—mutilation, amputation. Often it was too late; the wounded were doomed to death.

The confusion was of short duration. What was known of the infection of wounds held good. Thus: germs multiply on the battle-field, the clothing, the skin of the soldiers. The surgeons looked hard facts in the face. Every war wound is infected. The infection must be combated. No delay; the

germ multiplies and spreads its poisons in a few hours. The operation must be performed at once. As Professor Tuffier clearly put it:

It is in the first aid, the first operation, that the wounded man has his chance, and it is upon the *timeliness*, on the correctness of the operation that depends not only his life, but the favorable subsequent development of the wound, as well as the rapidity and efficacy of its healing.

Then the *mode* of operation was discovered.

In a war wound the surgeon's vision must somehow be focalized. What he sees at a first glance is lesions, impairment, caused by the projectile. But the wound is not a simple gash. It is essential to visualize its inner surface, to search for the projectile and the bits of clothing, earth, mud it had dragged in with it; to judge to what degree the bruised, burned flesh is liable to putrefaction. Thus one gets to regard the wound as a cancer and treat it as such, cutting down to the healthy flesh. It is brutal, but singularly effective.

Besides, the tetanus epidemic has been stamped out by a liberal use of preventive injections. The wound, freshened, disinfected, proceeds to heal.

Matters were organized. Operations were promptly and well performed. In the new period now beginning one may speak of the miracles of surgery. To a French surgeon, Alexis Carrel, redounds the honor of being the first to conceive and execute the immediate restoration of wounds, directly upon their disinfection. The seriously wounded had been regarded as lost or doomed to serious mutilation. It was a daring conception, a stroke of genius, Carrel's idea that the wound should be closed at once after being cleansed. Thanks to him and his followers, the order of procedure of modern war surgery may be summed up thus: For a given wound, at Charleroi it was death, avoided at times by a hasty operation; in the Champagne it was "excision" and permanent disability, after a year of nursing; to-day it is asepsitization for fifteen days, followed by grafting and sutures, a healing, and return of the wounded man to the front in three or four months. These are the days of surgery at its best.

And the lessons learned will be of permanent benefit. In the great revived industries will not accidents incident to labor be the first to take advantage of the lessons of war surgery? Nothing that has been learned is useless. One might say: "There is no *war surgery*, there is only surgery pure and simple."

# THE NEW BOOKS

## THE WAR AND ALLIED TOPICS

**The Business of War.** By Isaac F. Marcossion. John Lane Company, 319 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Mr. Marcossion, who has been called "America's foremost reporter," tells in this volume what he has seen of the feeding, transporting, and supplying of the British armies at the front as well as the manufacture of munitions and the vast operations of the great "army behind the army" in Great Britain. No writer of the day excels Mr. Marcossion in the power to make a picture of a business situation. Accustomed to recording the exploits of Big Business, Mr. Marcossion has found in the British military establishment the most amazing business institution that he has yet seen. In view of America's assumption of the huge responsibility of war-making in France, his revelation of business methods is most timely.

**The Warfare of To-Day.** By Lieut.-Col. Paul Azan. Houghton, Mifflin. 351 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

Colonel Azan, as chief of the French instructors in the training camps of our Middle and Eastern States, is perhaps the best-known French officer now in this country. Even before the war he was a military historian, and, until he received a disabling wound, had a brilliant career at the front. No one is better fitted to write of the nature and practise of warfare, as it is conducted to-day in France. The book is non-technical in the military sense, but authoritative and informing throughout.

**The Winning of the War.** By Roland G. Usher. Harper & Brothers. 382 pp. \$2.

In this book the author, who in an earlier volume had analyzed the menace of Pan-Germanism, defines the newer objectives of the Germans that have largely come into view since the war began and explains the postponement of Allied victory. The author himself characterizes his work as "an optimistic book for pessimistic people."

**Approaches to the Great Settlement.** By Emily Greene Balch. Introduction by Norman Angell. B. W. Huebsch. 351 pp. \$1.50.

A work especially useful for reference as a condensed, consecutive account of the successive steps towards peace beginning with President Wilson's note of December, 1916, and closing with the various replies to the Pope's note of August, 1917. More than half of the volume is devoted to documents and bibliography. These two features are of exceptional value to the student of the war and are not duplicated in any other existing book in the English language.

**The Soul of Democracy.** By Edward Howard Griggs. Macmillan. 158 pp. \$1.25.

A study of the philosophy of the world war in relation to human liberty. The questions that Dr.

Griggs attempts to answer in this little book are: What at bottom does the war mean? Why has it been our war from the beginning? What will be its effect upon our social philosophy and upon the future of democracy? The author discusses in a series of chapters the respective values of democracy and paternalism for efficiency, invention, endurance and finally for the welfare and progress of humanity. Like Dr. Griggs' lectures, which have been heard by many of our readers, his book is simple in style and popular in its appeal.

**Back to the Republic.** By Harry F. Atwood. Laird & Lee. 154 pp. \$1.

A plea for adherence to the republic as the standard of government—the golden mean between autocracy and radical democracy.

**America After the War.** By an American Jurist. The Century Co. 208 pp. \$1.

The author of this work, which first appeared in the form of a series of letters to the *New York Times*, is described by the publishers as "a statesman and jurist of deserved eminence." For reasons that cannot now be revealed he remains anonymous. He looks forward to a great extension of Federal power at Washington and endeavors to prepare American citizens for adjustment to the new order after the war.

**The Fallacy of the German State Philosophy.** By Dr. George W. Crile. Doubleday, Page. 32 pp. 50 cents.

Dr. Crile believes that whether Germany wins or loses the war she will be the loser in the end. The nations, he says, are opposed to Germany for the same reason that individuals in the community are opposed to a robber or a murderer. The philosophy that "might makes right" will never win in the long run.

**Long Heads and Round Heads, or What's the Matter with Germany?** By Dr. W. S. Sadler, Chicago. A. C. McClurg & Co. 157 pp. Ill. \$1.

A curious argument from anthropology to the effect that the Germans of to-day are round-headed, with an inherited tendency to cruelty and viciousness. They are, says Dr. Sadler, not real Teutons at all, having nothing whatever in common with the long-headed, progressive and intelligent race.

**The Iron Ration.** By George Abel Schreiner. Harper & Brothers. 385 pp. \$2.

The uncensored observations of one who lived for three years in Central Europe during war time. The "iron ration" is the term applied to

the food that the soldier carries in his pack when in the field. It may be eaten only when the commanding officer deems it necessary and wise. The "iron ration" is the last food in sight. Mr. Schreiner regards the civilian population of the Central Powers as in a position similar to that of the soldiers consuming their iron ration.

**In the Heart of German Intrigue.** By Demetra Vaka. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 377 pp. \$2.

The author of this book, a daughter of Greece, returned to her native country in the autumn of 1916 in an attempt to reconcile Venizelos and King Constantine and save Greece for the Allies. In this volume she gives a graphic narrative of her adventures in the heart of the most important campaign of intrigue that the Germans have initiated. In the course of her account she tells what happened at the secret interview between the Kaiser and King Constantine, in March, 1914, five months before the war broke out. To say that her revelations are sensational is a mild statement.

**Serbia Crucified.** By Lieutenant Milutin Krunich. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 305 pp. \$1.50.

A Serbian officer's story of his experiences in some of the grimmest and most thrilling episodes of the war.

**Tales from a Famished Land.** By Edward Eyre Hunt. Doubleday, Page & Co. 193 pp. \$1.25.

Most of the stories in this little volume grew out of the author's experience in service on the Commission for Relief in Belgium. The concluding tale, "The White Island," relates to the Dardanelles.

**Fighting Starvation in Belgium.** By Vernon Kellogg. Doubleday, Page. 219 pp. \$1.25.

Professor Kellogg, who left his chair at Stanford University, California, early in 1915 to assume duties in connection with the Belgian Commission, has probably been as intimately acquainted with the work of that great organization as any American, with the exception of Chairman Hoover, who is now United States Food Administrator. The "C. R. B." has been called the greatest humanitarian enterprise in history. In this little book Professor Kellogg tells how ten million starving people were fed at the rate of eight cents per person, and what the work of the Americans really meant to the Belgians.

**The Outrage.** By Annie Vivanti Chartres. Alfred A. Knopf. 261 pp. \$1.35.

A powerful story of the German invasion of Belgium, described by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle as "a very terrible book but a very strong one." The author gives a vivid presentation of the actual scenes of the invasion in August, 1914.

**Great Britain at War.** By Jeffery Farnol. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 167 pp. \$1.25.

The English novelist gives in this book his impressions after having made the rounds of the battlefields of France, the British fleet, the train-

ing camps, and the great munition centers and shipyards of England.

**Generals of the British Army.** Portraits in Colors. By Francis Dodd. George H. Doran Company. 50 cents.

Accompanying this portrait gallery of British generals there are biographical notes giving the chief facts in the careers of the several commanders.

**Donald Thompson in Russia.** By Donald C. Thompson. The Century Company. 353 pp. Ill. \$2.

Early in the war Mr. Thompson's skill and daring as a photographer became known through his exploits in Belgium. Later he went to Russia, "to shoot the Revolution," as the phrase is in film parlance. He made thousands of feet of moving-picture film, and while he was doing it wrote the details of the Revolution from day to day as he saw them in letters to his wife. These crisp, nervous letters make up the present volume.

**The Russian Revolution.** By Alexander Petrunkevitch, Samuel N. Harper and Frank A. Golder. The Jugo-Slav Movement. By Robert J. Kerner. 109 pp. \$1.

Compressed within one hundred printed pages we have here two serious and scholarly studies of the Russian Revolution together with an illuminating account of the Jugo-Slav movement. There are also helpful bibliographical notes.

**Over There and Back.** By Lieut. J. S. Smith, U. S. A. E. P. Dutton & Company. 244 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

An American boy's experiences in the Canadian, British and American armies at the front and in No Man's Land. Lieutenant Smith took part in every big battle on the British end of the Western Front up to the great drive of 1918.

**"Over There" with the Australians.** By Captain R. Hugh Knyvett. Charles Scribner's Sons. 339 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Captain Knyvett, who recently died in New York City while on sick leave, was an intelligence officer of the Australian forces. He spent many nights scouting in No Man's Land and within the German lines. In the course of this hazardous occupation he received at one time twenty shrapnel wounds, had one leg broken in three places and the other leg made helpless, and came to this country to recuperate and lecture.

**Out There.** By Charles W. Whitehair. Appletons. 249 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Mr. Whitehair, while not himself under arms, has made the tour of the trenches, hospitals, training camps, prison camps, and even the battle line itself in his capacity as Y. M. C. A. worker. He has lived with men of every nationality among the Allies and has witnessed some of the greatest battles of the war. His book is a great human story of what he has seen.



**A "Temporary Gentleman" in France.** G. P. Putnam's Sons. 263 pp. \$1.50.

Informal letters home from a British regimental officer, who, prior to the war, was a clerk in a suburban office.

**Temporary Heroes.** By Cecil Somers. Lane. 244 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

Letters from a British soldier at the front, revealing the amenities of army life and sketching (with the aid of the writer's clever pencil) several of the personalities that figure in the day's doings of camp and field.

**"Nothing of Importance."** By Bernard Adams. Robert M. McBride & Co. 334 pp. \$1.50.

In this volume we have the impressions and observations of an exceptionally able young graduate of Cambridge University who went to the front as a lieutenant in a Welsh regiment, was shortly made captain, and died as the result of wounds received while leading his men in February, 1917.

**The Story of the Salonica Army.** By G. Ward Price. Edward J. Clode, New York. 311 pp. \$2.

This book is especially important as a revelation of the reasons for the attitude of Greece in the War and a riddling of Germany's claim that her action in Belgium found a parallel in the treatment of Greece by the Allies. Mr. Price was official correspondent with the Allied forces in the Balkans. An introduction to the volume is furnished by Lord Northcliffe.

**A Flying Fighter.** By Lieut. E. M. Roberts. Harpers. 338 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Lieutenant Roberts, formerly of the Tenth Canadian Battalion, is an American aviator who actually witnessed and helped drive off Zeppelins from London. He has had his share of adventure above the lines in France. In one of his air battles eighteen pieces of bullets from a German gun lodged in his head after first smashing against the sight of his machine gun. His book describes the experiences of twenty-two months in the air.

**Glorious Exploits of the Air.** By Edgar Middleton. Appletons. 256 pp. Ill. \$1.35.

Mr. Middleton has long been a member of the British Royal Flying Corps. He knows every detail of the service and in this book he describes for the benefit of American aviators the training and work of the British airmen, tells how they watch the enemy's movements from above the German lines, and how they engage in combat with the airplanes of the Huns.

**The Glory of the Trenches.** By Coningsby Dawson. John Lane Company. 141 pp. \$1.

This is an interpretation of war by the author of "Carry On." An introduction is supplied by the author's father, the Rev. W. J. Dawson.

**The Father of a Soldier.** By W. J. Dawson. John Lane Company. 164 pp. \$1.

A message of comfort and cheer to the fathers



ILLUSTRATION FROM "TEMPORARY HEROES"

and mothers of soldier boys, inspired by a letter to the author from his own son, Lieutenant Coningsby Dawson, the author of "Carry On" and "The Glory of the Trenches."

**The Soul of the Soldier.** By Thomas Tiplady. Fleming H. Revell Company. 208 pp. \$1.25.

Additional sketches from the Western battlefield by Chaplain Tiplady, author of "The Cross at the Front."

**The War Cache.** By W. Douglas Newton. Appletons. 304 pp. Ill. \$1.40.

A story of the Great War and of the German spy system, involving the hunt for a German war treasure buried in England.

**Blown in by the Draft.** By Frazier Hunt. Doubleday, Page & Co. 372 pp. \$1.25.

A book of stories of soldier life collected at Camp Upton, the great National Army cantonment near New York City.

**American Women and the World War.** By Ida Clyde Clarke. Appletons. 544 pp. \$2.

This volume contains full information regarding the mobilization and organization of women in the various States and tells what has been accomplished and what particular lines of work American women are best fitted to engage in.

**A War Nurse's Diary.** Sketches from a Belgian Field Hospital. Macmillan. 115 pp. \$1.25.

The author of this little book has given proof of the highest form of courage amid most depressing conditions. She has faced bombardments and aerial raids, has calmly removed her charges under fire, has tended the wounded and dying amid scenes of carnage and confusion, and has brought about order and comfort where but a short time before all was confusion and discomfort. She gives a vivid account of her experiences.

**Letters to the Mother of a Soldier.** By Richardson Wright. Stokes. 135 pp. \$1.

Sensible, optimistic letters that answer many of the questions a mother would like to ask her son fighting "somewhere in France." They have been prepared as a means of comfort and reassurance

for the mothers of America, and also to give practical suggestions as to the ways mothers and folks at home can best help the soldier fighting at the front.

**A Yankee in the Trenches.** By Corporal R. Derby Holmes. Little, Brown & Company, Boston. 214 pp. Ill. \$1.35.

The story of a Boston boy who joined the British army in 1916, fought in the battles of the Somme, and witnessed the first of the "tanks" in action. The lighter as well as the more serious aspects of soldier life are presented in this book.

**Health for the Soldier and Sailor.** By Professor Irving Fisher and Dr. Eugene Lyman Fisk. Funk & Wagnalls. 148 pp. 60 cents.

This little manual, of pocket size, bound in khaki, is adapted in part from the recent work by the same authors, "How to Live," of which over 100,000 copies have been sold. The special material on war hygiene has been approved by military authorities. Both Professor Fisher and Dr. Fisk have made the subject of personal hygiene a life-long study, and their work has been endorsed by medical and sanitary specialists everywhere.

**How to Keep Fit in Camp and Trench.** By Colonel Charles Lynch, M.C., and Major James G. Cumming, Philadelphia. P. Blakiston's Son & Company. 69 pp. 30 cents.

This handbook, prepared by two army officers, has been approved for publication by Surgeon-General Gorgas. It gives practical directions for camp sanitation at home and abroad.

**Manual of Military Map Making and Reading.** By Lieutenant-Colonel J. M. Hutchinson and Captain A. J. MacElroy. Appleton. 117 pp. 75 cents.

An elementary book prepared to meet the needs of officers who have had little training in reading and making military sketches and maps. Two experienced army officers are responsible for the text and diagrams.

**To Bagdad With the British.** By Arthur Tillotson Clark. Appletons. 295 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A stirring account of the progress of the war in the Far East against German greed and intrigue, culminating in the capture by the late General Maude of the ancient City of Bagdad. The author served in Bagdad and in hospitals and military camps during the campaign as a Y. M. C. A. worker, and is now a member of the United States Aviation Corps.

**Leadership and Military Training.** By Lincoln C. Andrews, Lieutenant-Colonel U. S. A. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 191 pp. \$1.

An attempt to analyze the psychology of soldiering, to get at the spirit of it, and to point out how to make good in leadership and how to avoid making a failure.

**Making a Soldier.** By Major-General William A. Pew. Richard G. Badger: Boston. 220 pp. \$1.

Lectures given to the cadets of the Massachusetts National Guard training school.

## GARDENING MANUALS

**Practical Gardening.** By Hugh Findlay. Appletons. 388 pp. Ill. \$2.

An invaluable book for the home gardener who wishes to raise and store a sufficient quantity of vegetables and fruits to last through the non-producing winter months. Explicit information is given about the soil, fertilizers, use of garden tools, planning home gardens, hotbeds and cold frames, all fruit, vegetable and vine crops, and all matters essential to good gardening. The author states that the prosperity of the country depends largely on the productiveness of every back-yard garden. Many fine illustrations picture the methods of garden craft taught by the text.

**School and Home Gardening.** By Kary Cadmus Davis. Lippincott. 353 pp. Ill. \$1.75.

A comprehensive text-book planned for both general and school uses, designed for young people who want to learn how to make gardens and also to understand something of the fundamental principles of agriculture. Lessons in garden chemistry, drainage, use of tools, soil improvement, and many plans for the improvement of yards and features of agricultural contests accompany detailed instructions for raising fruits and vegetables. The garden calendars and planting tables are very useful, and the illustrations have been made to teach gardening rather than

for mere interest. Suggestions to teachers and club leaders are given in Part III. No better text-book for those who are interested in the school-garden movement has been compiled.

**The Backyard Garden.** By Edward I. Farrington. Laird and Lee. 191 pp. Ill. \$1.

A compact, readable, completely indexed handbook of instruction in gardening, in water-proof binding. The amateur garden-maker will find this book adapted to his needs, as it is simplified and written down to the requirements of a beginner. A garden calendar outlines each month's work, and planting tables and references in regard to fertilizers and remedies for bugs and insects are given in an appendix.

**The Child's Food Garden.** By Van Evrie Kilpatrick. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 64 pp. Ill. 48 cents.

A real beginners' book of simplified lessons in raising fruits, vegetables, and flowers, for every one of the five million boys and girls who are making gardens for Uncle Sam. Frost maps, planting tables, instructions in canning and drying, and many pictures make garden craft clear to children. The author is principal of the Carlisle School, New York City, and president of the School Garden Association of America.

# ACCOUNTS OF PEOPLES AND PLACES

**Colorado, the Queen Jewel of the Rockies.** By Mae Lacy Baggs. Boston: Page Co., 368 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

**Florida, the Land of Enchantment.** By N. O. Winter. Boston: Page Co. 380 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

These volumes belong to the "See America First Series." They serve their purpose because of the comprehensive treatment of each State and the many fine illustrations in color and in black-and-white. If they fail in any respect it is in a certain inability (not wholly inexcusable) to picture the States concretely, and beyond their mazes of scenery, cities, and industries, as compact organisms in the Federal body.

The volume on Colorado is written with enthusiasm; the writer feels the bigness of the country she portrays, and has done justice to the history of this part of the Rocky Mountain region and its natural advantages and resources. The scenery, and its effect upon writers and artists has claimed her special attention. It is interesting to remember that Colorado is a portion of the earth that was last to rise from the ooze of prehistoric seas. Once around Denver there existed a semi-tropical vegetation. The fossil remains of palms, fig trees, cinnamon, and giant ferns are exhibited in the Museum of Mines at Golden, and workmen digging cellars in Denver have found elephant tusks embedded in the soil.

The fact that Florida is itself a mountain would astonish most persons who ride over its monotonous level surface. It is geologically the last land raised by the giant force that pushed up the Appalachians. This wave was spent when it reached the latitude of Florida and barely succeeded in lifting the land above sea level. Mr. Winter's text is well written and his chapters excellently planned. He is painstakingly frank about the actual conditions of the State in regard to fertility and agriculture, and he has not neglected to recover the glamour of the veil of romance cast over this land of flowers by the Spanish explorer, Ponce de Leon. Those who are lured by the call of the South will find pleasure and profit in this story of the State of lakes and orange groves.

**The Virgin Islands of the United States of America.** By Luther K. Zabriskie. Putnam. 339 pp. Ill. \$4.

A detailed account of everything an American should know about our new Caribbean possessions, arranged so that the book may be used as a handy reference volume. Historical, descriptive, commercial and industrial facts are given with an outline of the possibilities of the islands under wise management. There is also a résumé of the sale negotiations between the United States and Denmark which lasted from 1865 down to 1917. The many illustrations give successively panoramic views of the islands and their principal points of interest and reproductions of photographs of men of affairs who have been associated with the group. Mr. Zabriskie was formerly Vice-Consul of the United States at St. Thomas. His thorough knowledge of the islands has enabled him to present them most attractively and with sound authority.

**Cousin-Hunting in Scandinavia.** By Mary W. Williams. Badger. 242 pp. \$2.

Observations and experiences of a young American of Scandinavian descent in the "grand-mother countries" of America, Sweden, Norway and Denmark. The home-life of the natives is pictured in a delightfully intimate manner, with an emphasis on homely details that adds much to the charm of the book. There are notes on Selma Lagerlöf and Ellen Key, and a description of the mementoes of Hans Christian Andersen. Miss Williams found that Andersen had written under one photograph of himself: "Life itself is the best wonder story." Thirty-one illustrations add flavor to the text.

**Analytical and Critical Bibliography of the Tribes of Tierra del Fuego and Adjacent Territory.** By John M. Cooper. (Bulletin No. 63, Bureau of American Ethnology.) 243 pp. Washington: Government Printing Office.

This bibliography was prepared as a practical working guide to the sources for Fuegian and Chonan anthropology. The Fuegian Archipelago is inhabited by three distinct tribes—the Yagans, the Alacuf and the Onas. The first two tribes spend much of their time on the water and are known as "Canoe Indians"; the members of the third, having neither horses nor canoes, are known as "Foot Indians." Mr. John Cooper, the editor of the bulletin, says that courage and bravery are in honor among these peoples, as is the stoical endurance of pain and privation. Also that they had neither narcotics or intoxicants until after their contact with the whites. Their lives are pitifully meager; they do not know even the rudiments of agriculture, and have no domesticated animal except the dog.

**Vacation Journeys East and West.** By David M. Steele. Putnam. 240 pp. \$1.50.

A series of fourteen little journeys to famous vacation resorts in the United States, which contrasts the beauties of Eastern and Western places of pilgrimage. They are pleasantly told and carry much information that will prove of value to those who are unable to decide just where to go for a vacation. Several attractive illustrations give an excellent idea of the summer pleasures described by the author, and two maps show the avenues of travel. Dr. Steele is rector of the Church of St. Luke and The Epiphany in Philadelphia and the author of an earlier travel volume, "Going Abroad Overland."

**China.** By E. H. Parker. E. P. Dutton & Co. 419 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

The first edition of this book appeared in 1901, soon after the settlement of the "Boxer" troubles. China has made history rapidly during the past sixteen years and new chapters were demanded covering the law reforms from 1905 onward, the growth of the spirit of democracy, and, finally, the rise of the Chinese Republic. This is generally regarded as the standard work in English on Chinese life and history.

## AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VERSE

IN Mr. Edgar Lee Masters' fourth book of verse, "Toward the Gulf,"<sup>1</sup> he has again written of the Middle West as in the "Spoon River Anthology," and "The Great Valley." The title poem is epic; in it there is the sweep of the ground-swell of the Mississippi, the harmony of the vast network of waters drawn towards the Gulf by the mighty river, and of all the life and human effort that these waters irrigate and encircle. The evolution of the hybrid peoples of the Middle West is pictured in searching studies in heredity and of the complexities of human psychology.

As poetry, it is strong and acrid in the bitter rind of its thought, merciless in its analysis of motives, inscrutable—in part—save to those who are initiates of life, but of spiritual soundness. Those who wish poetry that is but the song of nightingales singing in rose gardens had best not cut the pages of this book, whose poems show a microscopic searching of the earth, and a telescopic star-gathering in the milieu of heaven. The poetry of gardens and flowers, such lyrics as "Johnny Applesed," and the love poems afford grateful interludes between the acerbating conclusions of the longer poems. One notable poem, "Neanderthal," measures the great gulf between the intelligence that once abode in the skull of this prehistoric man and that of Shelley. Part of Mr. Masters' thought in this poem is that life at its summit is sacrifice:

"Change and progression from the glazed slough,  
Where life creeps and is blind, ascending up  
The jungled slopes for prey till spirits bow  
On Calvaries with crosses, take the cup  
Of martyrdom for truth's sake.

So life shall flow  
Here on this globe until the final fruit  
And harvest. As it were until the glow  
Of the great blossom has the attribute  
In essence, color of eternal things,  
And shows no rim between its hues which suit  
The infinite sky's. Then if the dead earth swings  
A gleaned and stricken field amid the void  
What matters it to you, a soul with wings,  
Whether it be replanted or destroyed?  
Has it not served you?"

"Georgian Poetry"<sup>2</sup> brings together in a single volume the best and most distinctive poems of British lyric writers during the years 1916-1917. Eighteen writers appear in the volume, nine of them for the first time in the Georgian anthologies. Among those poets with established reputations are James Stephens, John Masefield, Ralph Hodgson, Wilfrid Gibson, William Davies and Walter de la Mare. The poems as a whole are far above the average of most collections, in the main beautiful of thought and form and certain of their future place in the world of poetry. One strong poem, "To a Bull-Dog," by J. C. Squire, records the grief of a dog and a man over the

comrade, who, because of the war, "won't be coming any more."

The collection, "Songs of Ukraina,"<sup>3</sup> translated by Florence Randall Livesay, includes songs of the Ukraine and Ruthenian poems. They are gracefully rendered into English, always with excellent rhythms, and in many instances in rhyme which makes them a distinct poetic creation so far as their English form is concerned. The poems included pagan songs, wedding song-cycles, historical songs of the Cossacks, and many folk-poems and folk-songs. The themes are those of love, and war, and the wild freedom born on the wide steppes of Southern Russia. While the Ukraine has in a measure lost her written history, it has been preserved in her historical songs, therefore all collections of Ukrainian poetry are of interest to students of history as well as to those who enjoy poetry.

"Grenstone Poems," by Witter Bynner, tell the story of the coming and the passing of a great affection in the life of a young poet. By their intimacy, their sense of personal confession, the lyrics chisel a place in memory. A young poet goes to Grenstone, a hamlet in the mountains with the "windy sunny pasture where the hilltop turns its face." There he meets Celia, whose mind and spirit are the complements of his own, and together they find the eternal values of life.

A word for Stephen Chalmers, whose patriotic poems have recently attracted attention. A sheaf of melodious lyrics are bound in a grey-blue booklet and published in an Adirondack edition at Saranac Lake, under the title "The Gilding-Star and Other Poems."<sup>4</sup>

One of the most interesting anthologies of the year, in view of the perspective evoked by its range of verse, is "The Standard Book of Jewish Verse,"<sup>5</sup> compiled and edited by Joseph Friedlander. The anthology contains poems by many Jewish poets.

## Ireland in Poetry

Mr. Francis Carlin, a new American-born Celtic poet, writes most eloquently of Ireland and her mystic shrines in his first book of verse, "My Ireland." When this volume appeared unheralded a few months ago, critics saw at once the beauty and genius of the verse, and now Mr. Carlin is praised by no less an authority on poetry than Will Marion Reedy as the "herald of the Irish dawn." Other critics have compared his work to that of Blake and Keats. His book contains many short poems, nearly all of them overflowing with Irish hero-lore and folk-lore. In some in-

<sup>1</sup> Songs of Ukraina. By F. Randal Livesay. Dutton. 175 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> Grenstone Poems. By Witter Bynner. Frederick Stokes Co. 307 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>3</sup> The Gilding Star and Other Poems. By Stephen Chalmers. Saranac Lake.

<sup>4</sup> The Standard Book of Jewish Verse. Edited by Joseph Friedlander. Dodd, Mead. \$3.

<sup>5</sup> My Ireland. By Francis Carlin. Holt. 195 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>1</sup> Toward the Gulf. By Edgar Lee Masters. Macmillan. 292 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> Georgian Poetry. 1916-1917. Putnam. 181 pp. \$2.



stances they rise to the height of a mystical language of wind, air, and fire. Part of them seem almost drunken with sweetness, like Keats' poems; others are as Blake's or Lionel Johnson's, rapt of vision, as if all corporeality had been dissolved in the fires of an awakened spirit. This quality is most apparent in the last poem of the collection, "The Provinces":

"Oh, God, that I  
May rise with the Gael  
To the song in the sky  
Over Inisfail.

"Ulster, your dark  
Mold for me;  
Munster, a lark  
Hold for me.

"Connaught, a *caoine*  
Croon for me;  
Leinster, a mean  
Stone for me.

"Oh, God, that I  
May rise with the Gael  
To the song in the sky  
Over Inisfail."

The "Collected Works of Padraic H. Pearse"<sup>1</sup> contains short stories, plays and poems translated mainly by the author from his own Gaelic originals. A few have been translated by Mr. Joseph Campbell. The *London Times* says of Pearse's work: "To the seeker after literature, the purified and exalted expression of spiritual life, it matters not a jot whether the poet be politically right or wrong. . . . The literature left by Pearse is not the literature of a coward or a mean man. It speaks him one of those rare people who live dedicated lives, and are so aflame with spiritual passion and the glory of the vision that they care nothing what happens to their bodies or to their names."

Padraic Pearse was easily the foremost exponent of the Gaelic movement in Ireland among the younger men. He was a scholar who used the ancient Gaelic freely as a medium for literary expression, and he was the founder—against great difficulties—of a school where Irish standards and ideals were fostered by a truly Irish method of education. In him, as Mr. Browne writes in the preface of this volume, ancient, medieval and modern Gaelic currents meet, and to-day he is the symbol of the continuity and permanence of the Gaelic tradition. Religious sentiment, love of children, tenderness, passion, and fancy, all the chief characteristics of Gaelic genius illuminate his writings. It is evident in his work that he felt he must shed his blood in order that his ideals might live. This feeling is plainly voiced in the poem "Renunciation":

"Naked I saw thee,  
Oh beauty of beauty,  
And I blinded my eyes  
For fear I should fail

I have turned my face  
To this road before me,  
To the deed that I see  
And the death I shall die."

Another Celtic poet, American-born, distinctly of the type of Padraic Pearse in the scholarly and mystic quality of his mind, is Norreys Jephson O'Connor, whose "Songs of the Celtic Past"<sup>2</sup> have just been published. In this new volume, Mr. O'Connor retells in English poetry the Irish story of the fairy maid Etain. In "Cormac's Christmas," a play that deals with the Christianizing of Ireland, we find Cormac stoutly resisting St. Patrick and his God who is overthrowing the ancient Druidic faiths. Mr. O'Connor's plays are written for stage production, and a former play, "The Fairy Bride," has been presented both professionally and by amateurs with great success. The section of "Modern Melodies" in this volume contains many graceful lyrics distinguished in the main by a delicate fantasy, and an ardent intellectualism. One of them pays eloquent tribute to the memory of Francis Ledwidge, the Irish poet from the Valley of the Boyne, who was killed in action in France in 1917.

In a new book by William Butler Yeats, "Per Amica Silentia Lunae,"<sup>3</sup> the poet converses partly in verse, partly in prose, on certain thoughts so habitual in his mind that he ventures to call them convictions. They are questionings of the mysteries of life, beauty and art, and of the curious way in which images are precipitated in the mind. He takes it that this "precipitation" is the work of the "other self," called by some the Guardian Angel, by others the Genius, and by Lytton, *Adonai*. Beyond literary toil, beyond the imitation of great masters, is the door of intuition whence all great art emerges. We must in a fiery, or rhythmic body have access to this realm. How we may discover the way to enter at will this world of pure intuition is the pith of Mr. Yeats' discussion. The style of his prose is as magical as that of his earlier poems.

"Brian Padraic O'Seasnaigh" (Mr. Bernard Sexton), author of "Star Drift,"<sup>4</sup> a book of American and Irish verse, is known to children as "Grey Wolf, the Story Man." He is the founder of the "Little School in the Woods" at Greenwich, Connecticut, and at present is a traveling lecturer to children. The Irish poems in this collection will give Mr. Sexton an authentic niche in the Celtic ensemble. They are fervent and have true gold in the grain. "Dark Rosaleen" and "Oisín Sings to the Sleepers" have the magical flame of spiritual illumination. Other poems include individualistic tributes to nature and short rhythmic, humanistic meditations. The collection is uneven in quality, however, and at times lacking in lyric freedom—a fault not surprising in a first book of verse.

In "White Fountains,"<sup>5</sup> a collection of odes and lyrics, Mr. Edward J. O'Brien has adapted the form of the Gregorian chant to the odes, "The Poet Speaketh to His Flesh" and "His Flesh Answereth the Poet." The possibilities of the form were suggested to him by Synge's "Riders to the Sea" and Dunsany's "Book of Wonder." In general interest, the lyrics surpass the odes. "The Piping Mountainy Man" has freshness and true Celtic magic.

<sup>2</sup> Songs of the Celtic Past. By Norreys Jephson O'Connor. John Lane. 171 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> Per Amica Silentia Lunae. By William Butler Yeats. Macmillan. 98 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>4</sup> Star Drift. By Brian Padraic O'Seasnaigh.

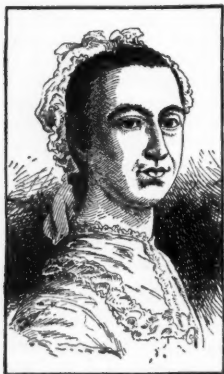
<sup>5</sup> White Fountains. By Edward J. O'Brien. Small, Maynard. 113 pp. \$1.

<sup>1</sup> Collected Works of Padraic H. Pearse. Stokes. 341 pp. \$3.

# COLONIAL DRAMA, CURRENT PLAYS AND DRAMATIC CRITICISM

THE growth and development of a nation can be gaged more accurately by the plays written during formative periods than by the fiction, essays or poetry of those periods. The student of history will find a most vivid perspective of the growth of American nationalism in Montrose Moses' collection of distinctly American plays dating from 1765 to 1917.<sup>1</sup>

The first volume, which contains ten plays, includes in the list "The Prince of Parthia," by William Godfrey, Jr.; "The Battle of Bunker Hill," by Hugh Henry Brackenridge; "The Fall of British Tyranny, or American Liberty," by John Leacock, and "Andre," by William Dunlap. Each of the ten plays has a biography of its author, a critical introduction, and one or more illustrations. One of the most



MRS. MERCY WARREN  
(Author of "The Group: a Farce")

Burgoyne took himself seriously as a dramatist and was as much interested in this form of literature as in soldiering. His dramas may be obtained at any large reference library.

Pinero has grown to be a myth in this country. Yet so potent has been his influence upon the English-speaking stage, that the mention of his name incites controversy. Clayton Hamilton has restored Pinero to the world of flesh and blood by means of an admirable introduction to the Library Edition of "The Social Plays of Arthur Wing Pinero."<sup>2</sup> This first volume of these plays, contains "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray" and "The Notorious Mrs. Ebbsmith"—the latter the dramatist's favorite play. Mr. Hamilton holds that modern drama was ushered into being when "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray" was acted upon the stage of St. James's Theater in London, in 1893, also, that this play was the only great play written in the English language for one hundred and sixteen years. This statement is overly enthusias-

tic on behalf of Pinero. With due admiration for this splendid play, it may be called into question technically, and as psychological portraiture it is inferior to "Iris." Pinero is a Portuguese name and appears in street signs in Lisbon spelled, "Pinherio." The dramatist is part Jewish and part Gentile racially, and of mixed Latin and Anglo-Saxon blood. He was educated for the law but gave up his vocation at the age of nineteen to become an actor. Later, after a period spent in Sir Henry Irving's company, he forsook acting for playwriting. In appearance, he is short, stout, and dapper, with a Napoleonic figure and brilliant dark eyes under bushy eyebrows. Above an aquiline profile rises the bald dome of his head fringed with dark brown hair turning grey. He is married, but has no children.

Ex-President Roosevelt highly commends to readers a one-act war play, "Efficiency." He writes that this play shows "in a dramatic manner how the Prussianized militaristic autocracy of the Hohenzollerns has turned Germany into an inhuman machine for the destruction of what is highest and best in mankind." The action of the play deals with the marvelous reconstruction of the wounded. The men are patched up by German scientific men in order to return them to the trenches half-human Frankensteins, much better fighting machines than they were originally, because of the marvels of science. The tragedy that follows upon this triumph of efficiency symbolizes the tragedy that will eventually overtake the powers of soulless materialism now rampant in the world.

The last volume of an edition of the complete dramatic works of Gerhart Hauptmann in English, edited by Ludwig Lewisohn,<sup>4</sup> contains a composition that sheds considerable light upon German aims and aspirations. This composition, "The Masque," was written by Hauptmann to celebrate the one-hundredth anniversary of Germany's freedom from Napoleonic yoke. In one of the last scenes a German Athene leads a procession representing the blessings and activities of peace into a cathedral to celebrate the unity of a Germany whose citizens have—according to Hauptmann—"at heart the common weal of man." Professor Lewisohn voices the suspicion that this "Masque," like the second part of "Faust," gains clarity and significance from the passage of time. The other plays of this volume are "The Bow of Odysseus," "Elga," and under the title of "Fragments," "Helios" and "Pastoral." Hauptmann's Odysseus is not the eternal wayfarer of the old wonder tale, but rather a subtle, experienced man of the Homeric age. "Elga" is a beautiful poetic drama based on a short story by Grillparzer. "Helios" is a description of the struggle between Christianity and paganism, and "Pastoral" calls the artist from the noisome labyrinths of cities back to the eternal delights of nature.

<sup>1</sup> Representative American Plays by American Dramatists. Edited by Montrose Moses. Dutton. 678 pp. Ill. \$3.

<sup>2</sup> The Social Plays of Arthur Wing Pinero. Edited by Clayton Hamilton. Dutton. 362 pp. \$2.

<sup>3</sup> Efficiency. By Robert H. Davis and Perley Sheehan. Doran. 40 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>4</sup> Gerhart Hauptmann: Dramatic Works. Edited by Ludwig Lewisohn. Huebsch. 384 pp. \$1.50.

Eugene Brieux's play, "Artists' Families"<sup>1</sup> (Menages d'Artistes) was written in the eighties to picture a Parisian circle of sham Bohemians and vapid pretenders to genius. It is as fresh and applicable to the present as if it had been written yesterday. One hit at free verse is worth quoting:

"Emma: (to Jacques) 'Ah, Monsieur Tervaux, let me congratulate you once again. France has one more great poet. Glory will be yours for having freed poetry from the shackles which weighted its winged flight. Henceforth there are to be no more rhymes.'

"Tombelain: 'No hiatuses.'

"Divoire: 'No more capitals of the beginning of each line.'

"Emma: 'The Poetry of the Future! Isn't it, Doctor?'

"Dr. M.: 'Real prose—at last.'"

#### A HARLEQUINADE AND FAIRY PLAYS.

"The Harlequinade"<sup>2</sup> is a delicate, fantastic play in five episodes, by H. Granville Barker and Dion Clayton Calthrop. Its authors call it "an excursion" and those who are to read it "trippers." Amateur players and those organizing entertainments for literary clubs will find this play well adapted to their needs. Part of its secret is that Mercury on earth is the strolling player, Harlequin; Momus is always Clown, and Psyche is Columbine. There is food for thought in its fantasy and a little real magic.

"Robin Goodfellow and Other Fairy Plays,"<sup>3</sup> by Netta Syrett, includes six plays for children which can be produced easily and with simple scenic effects. Three of the plays are arranged for children's ballets, and one, "The Dryad's Awakening," may be performed out of doors against a natural background of trees covered with green leaves.

Rob Wagner's humorous stories of life in the "movies"—"Film Folk"<sup>4</sup> that appeared in the *Saturday Evening Post* are called "Los Angeles Canterbury Tales," inasmuch as the locale of all the stories is that of the great moving-picture studios around about Los Angeles. They furnish information about the lives of film actors and actresses, and afford entertainment on every page.

A volume of sidelights on modern drama—"Mr. George Jean Nathan Presents"<sup>5</sup> contains piquant vaudeville turns of sound criticism pungent with wit and satire. Mr. Nathan discusses old and new melodrama, the "Hawkshawian Drama," musical comedy, the commercial manager, recent dramatic successes and failures, and takes a fling at the intellectualism of Mrs. Fiske, and the castle of realism built by Mr. David Belasco. By way of a valedictory, there is a chapter on "Stupidity as a Fine Art." Mr. Nathan finds in the modern theater a stupidity so excellent, so signal, naïve and refreshing, that he has hopes that it may arouse in the minds of the intelligent a latent interest in the playhouse.

## SIGNIFICANT NOVELS

"CHILDREN of Passage," by Frederick Watson, the son of "Ian Maclaren," is a tragic-comedy of the Scotch Highlands.<sup>6</sup> The character drawing of the quaint Scotch people is not excelled by any other novel in modern English fiction, so artfully is the satirical turn of the Scotch character blended with humor that lies dangerously near to pathos. The love story of David and Iona, the "children of passage," illumines the book. One "passes" through a baptism of shot and shell, the other looking out upon the "peak of Calder" in her beloved highlands. And one may sum up the message of the book thus: the calm faith and assurance of the young in this cataclysmic time is more profound than the wisdom of the ages. Death to them is only the "hour before dawn."

"Martin Rivas," a tale translated from the Spanish of Alberto Blest-Gana, is a romantic novel that is also a satire on the pretensions and mannerisms of the *nouveau riches*. The scenes are laid in the city of Santiago in Chile. We follow

the fortunes of a Chilean family of recently acquired wealth through a social life that is muddy with affectation and snobbishness, which has no excuse in either aristocracy of birth or in culture. A delightful love story weaves through the narrative and comes to a happy ending. The author was born in Santiago, Chile, eighty-six years ago. He is in the opinion of Alfred Coester's "Literary History of South America," the greatest of Chilean writers. "Martin Rivas" is considered his masterpiece.

A first novel by Grant Watson is of interest as a story and as a study of the relation of the individual to society. Its title, "When Bonds Are Loosened,"<sup>7</sup> indicates the action, which shows a group of men and women reacting to the influences of a totally primitive environment on Kanna Island off the west coast of Australia. There are only a few characters and the story is intense from beginning to end. Under the influence of the primitive life on the island, the highly tensioned, cultured Anglo-Saxon goes down, while the less-sensitive, lower-keyed temperaments flourish, and in exact ratio, according to Mr. Watson's theory, to the basically atavistic originally held in leash in their natures. A sequel, "The Mainland,"<sup>8</sup> shows how the bonds of civilized society are forged once more by the descendants of one of the couples who made the direct descent to the primitive on the island. Both stories are, however, complete in themselves.

<sup>1</sup> Artists' Families. By Eugene Brieux. Translated by Barrett H. Clark. Doubleday, Page & Co. 98 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>2</sup> The Harlequinade. By Granville Barker and Dion Clayton Calthrop. Little, Brown. 87 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> Robin Goodfellow and Other Fairy Plays. By Netta Syrett. John Lane. 139 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> Film Folk. By Rob Wagner. Century. 356 pp. Ill. \$2.

<sup>5</sup> Mr. George Jean Nathan Presents. Knopf. 310 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>6</sup> Children of Passage. By Frederick Watson. Dutton. 248 pp. \$1.

<sup>7</sup> Martin Rivas. By Alberto Blest-Gana. Knopf. \$1.60.

<sup>8</sup> When Bonds Are Loosened. By Grant Watson. Knopf. 305 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>8</sup> The Mainland. By Grant Watson. Knopf. \$1.50.

# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—THE INTEREST RATE ON THE THIRD LIBERTY LOAN AND MEANS OF STABILIZING THE PRICE

THE economic fallacy that financial power regulates the duration of war has been proven. It seems rather to be the fact that facility in borrowing is in the inverse ratio to the length of time that countries of great wealth have been at war. Great Britain, for instance, had less trouble in raising \$5,000,000,000 in the spring of 1917 than she did her first \$1,000,000,000. The present indications are that the third Liberty loan of \$3,000,000,000 in this country will command a larger subscription than the initial loan of \$2,000,000,000 promulgated within a few months of the declaration against Germany.

There are two simple explanations. The first is organization. The machinery by which government loans are propelled is entirely new when a peace country goes to war. It is badly adjusted and inadequate to the load placed on it. In the United States, prior to April, 1917, there were only 350,000 owners of government and corporation bonds. The banks held most of the former. A few wealthy people possessed the bulk of the remainder. In the first Liberty loan the subscribers numbered 4,000,000 or over ten times the original numerical strength. In the second loan the number more than doubled—to 9,400,000. It is believed that this figure will be greatly exceeded in the campaign now coming to a close and that one in every ten persons in the country, as a minimum, will be registered as an applicant for participation in the loan. This well reflects the smooth operation of the machinery of publicity, salesmanship and leverage under communities that previously had been apathetic on the war and its support or unacquainted with the methods by which one may have and hold a government bond.

The second factor in the cumulative process of government loan subscriptions is that of a steadily reduced competition with other capital-requiring agencies. This concentrates the saving power of a nation on one form of security. Normally there are sev-

eral billion dollars of corporation, municipal and State bonds floated annually. It is into these that surplus earnings, in part, go. If, however, the expenditures of a municipality are regulated by a Capital Issues Committee, as is now being done in the United States, or the enlargements of a corporation are subject first to the approval of a government body a large sum of capital regularly allocated to them will be preserved for government loans. With this regulation goes the element of savings in production of non-essential goods for the twin purposes of conserving labor and materials entering therein and of sparing capital necessary to their production but primarily needed to supply the Government with funds. This takes the machinery of publicity and education to bring about, and in proportion as the lesson of thrift in use of goods is learned clearly and quickly, is the government loan effectively negotiated.

### *Interest Not an Important Incentive*

Beyond a minimum rate, say 3 per cent., it is doubtful if the interest on government loans placed in war times cuts as great a figure as is supposed. In the past year there have been many serious suggestions that the United States, in making its loans, give the borrower no interest whatever. While it is the pride of partnership in a just cause that brings out most of the subscriptions during the heat of the campaign, there is a considerable element who cannot afford to relinquish their modest increment on capital and at the same time meet the cost of living expenses doubled in the last few years. Therefore, with 3 per cent. a recognized minimum for savings accounts in many States a great many would have been slow to respond if a non-interest bearing bond had been proposed. The fact that in the second loan, with interest 4 per cent. instead of  $3\frac{1}{2}$ , the number of subscriptions doubled, does not weaken the argument, for surely the difference between annual interest of \$1.75 and \$2 on a \$50 bond, or between \$3.50 and \$4



on a \$100 bond—these were the two denominations most freely subscribed to—was not the incentive out of which the increased applications came. Nor will the further gains of  $12\frac{1}{2}$  cents and 25 cents on \$50 and \$100 bonds, respectively, be an influence in augmenting the numbers of those who take the current issue of  $4\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. bonds.

The extent to which individuals and corporations buy government war bonds in time of war, from patriotic motives, is shown in the very small purchases by this public of the 4 per cent. government bonds which have sold in the open market at a discount of 4 to 5 points, of 4 points since it became known that they were convertible in a  $4\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. issue, which was to be offered at par. At 96 the second 4s, converted into a  $4\frac{1}{4}$  bond of a 25-year maturity, return  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., more than the most liberal of the well-managed savings banks give, but apparently those with funds reserved these funds to subscribe to the  $4\frac{1}{4}$  at par.

#### *Government Purchase of Outstanding Bonds*

Though it is true that interest rate above 3 per cent. does not count among the major factors of a successful government loan, it is certainly a fact that the stability of price has considerable to do with encouraging successive subscriptions. When the second loan began the  $3\frac{1}{2}$ s were at a small discount. The decline below the purchase price of par was not enough to dampen the ardor of those who were asked to take more bonds. The third campaign, however, started with the 4s at a discount of nearly 4 points, so that the \$3,800,000,000 outstanding were actually worth in the market \$150,000,000 under that figure.

It is on this account that the sinking-fund feature has been introduced into the third loan. The Secretary of the Treasury may, at his discretion, purchase 5 per cent. per annum of the bonds outstanding, both during the war and for a period of one year thereafter. When, therefore, bonds are offered at a price which seems to the Secretary inimical to the credit of the Government and prejudicial to subsequent loans, he has the power and the means to go into the open market and absorb these bonds. Great Britain and France have employed the sinking fund or the special buying fund to very great advantage and if something in this nature had been in operation during the winter and spring it might have been possible to

maintain the price of the 4s near par and so allowed further issues at this rate. It is to be remembered that there is a small number of very wealthy investors whose subscriptions aggregate a large total and they would not be disposed to take additional 4 per cent. bonds at par which they could buy at 96 on the Stock Exchange. The concession of one-fourth of one per cent. in the interest rate was partially to satisfy this element.

#### *The Maximum Rate*

The interest rate on a government bond cannot stand apart from rates or yields on all other securities, even though it is always the lowest of any. There must, consequently, be a certain equilibrium between the government interest rate and that of the corporation. (Municipalities and States have tax-exemption advantages now over loans of the United States subsequent to that of last June, which places some of their bonds at a premium over the second and third Liberty loans.) If, therefore, the cost of all borrowing continues to advance the United States Government cannot free itself from the influence of the higher capital cost and although it has been indicated that  $4\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. will be the maximum paid on our loans while the war lasts, no positive determination of this sort can be made. It is doubtless true that discontinuance of the conversion privilege with the present loan will assist in maintaining an even rate for it was the possibility of exchanging into issues of higher and higher return that impelled a certain amount of early buying of the  $3\frac{1}{2}$ s and 4s.

#### *The Nations' War Debts*

At the end of the fiscal year 1918 the long-term war debt of the United States will be approximately \$10,000,000,000. It will also have out then a considerable number of short-term certificates of indebtedness to be later refunded by a fourth loan. Against the total of both there will be probably \$6,000,000,000 to \$6,500,000,000 of bonds of foreign government obligations owned by this country. Taking the war debt of Great Britain as of December 31, 1917, and adding to it the known daily expenditures from January to July, minus the amounts raised by taxation, and we have a figure of net cost, covering about four years of war, of something over \$25,000,000,000. These are the countries of greatest wealth in the world, one of which will have consumed by war about 4 per cent. of her means

in fifteen months and the other over 25 per cent. in a little under four years. Germany's net war debt after the eighth loan is completed will be little short of \$30,000,000,000, or about one-third of her national wealth.

It is becoming all the while more apparent that some form of capital tax will have to be enacted after the war to bring about a proper proportion between national income and national debt service.

## II. INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 930. TIME TO INVEST

Do you consider this a good time in which to invest in high-grade bonds and preferred stocks? Also what would you consider a selected list of bonds and preferred stocks for a \$500 investment? This money represents my savings, which are now in savings banks.

While we cannot be altogether sure of the course of market prices for standard high-grade bonds and stocks over the next few months, we nevertheless consider that the present is not a bad time in which to invest in such securities. In other words, we are inclined to think that even if all of the readjustment of prices to the uncertain conditions with which we are confronted has not yet been accomplished, events will show that a very large part of it has been.

For the average investor seeking safety and at the same time a reasonably high average rate of income, we would recommend under prevailing conditions standard, seasoned bonds and stocks like:

Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Adjustment Mortgage 4 per cents, New York Central Consolidation 4 per cents, Illinois Central Collateral Trust 4 per cents of 1953, Oregon-Washington R. R. & Navigation 1st and refunding 4 per cents, Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé preferred, and Union Pacific preferred.

### No. 931. TRADING IN BONDS

A few years ago I bought New York City, Baltimore & Ohio and Chicago, Burlington & Quincy bonds. After noticing the market fluctuations of the New York City issue, I made up my mind I might obtain a profit by selling, which I did at 109 and bought Anglo-French 5 per cents. Now it seems to me that I might continue to make a profit every now and then by changing when one of my bonds is up and buying something a little lower in price. What money I accumulate now goes into Liberty Loan bonds. I have two of these. I do not want anything that does not offer safety of principal and interest.

There are a good many investors who have a perfect right to undertake to put into practice the theory you suggest. But for the average man who has neither time nor facilities to keep in close personal touch with the investment market, and to study the various influences operating upon

prices, we consider it bad practice to try to trade in and out of securities for profit through price fluctuations.

The various bonds you mention as being included among your holdings are in our opinion of excellent quality,—investments which show every likelihood of proving safe, both principal and interest, and in every way satisfactory to hold for income.

### No. 932. A GOOD HUNDRED DOLLAR BOND

I have at present \$100 to invest in some bond that pays more than 4 per cent. I am investing about \$25 a month in Liberty Loan bonds and \$25 placed to a savings account, and besides if I could get something satisfactory, that is, safe and better than 4 per cent., would like to purchase a \$100 bond about every other month.

One of the best of the current offerings of safe bonds in \$100 denominations seems to us to be the Canadian Pacific Railway 6 per cent. Debentures due in 1924. The small denomination bonds of this issue are obtainable, we believe, at about par to net a full 6 per cent. on the investment. Such an investment, we believe, would make an excellent beginning on your plan to purchase a small denomination bond every month or so.

### No. 933. RUSSIAN BONDS

I own a small block of Russian internal bonds, 5½ per cents, issued 1916 and maturing in 1921. I bought these at about 33 cents on the ruble. They are, of course, worth much less now.

I would like to have your opinion whether it is wise to dispose of them now or hold them for maturity. So far as the need of the money involved is concerned, I can easily afford to hold them.

While the very confusing and uncertain state of Russian affairs at the present time makes it practically impossible for anyone to foretell what is likely to happen to the country's internal and external obligations, we are inclined to think that if we were in your position we should be disposed to gamble a little bit further and not sell out on the basis of current quotations for the Russian ruble.

